

58611
A
TREATISE
ON THE
Safety *and* Maintenance
OF
STATES,
By the Means of
FORTRESSES.

*Translated from the original FRENCH
Of M. MAIGRET,
Engineer in Chief, and Knight of the Royal and
Military Order of St. LOUIS.*

LONDON;

Printed in the Year MDCCXLVII.

TO HIS

RT. HON. THE

SECRETARY

OF THE

ADMIRALTY

AND



OF THE

ADMIRALTY

OF THE

ADMIRALTY

OF THE

ADMIRALTY

OF THE

ADMIRALTY

OF THE

TO HIS
ROYAL HIGHNESS

THE
DUKE,

Captain General, and
Commander in Chief of
all His MAJESTY's
Forces, &c. &c. &c.

SIR,

WERE Your ROYAL
HIGHNESS a Hero only,
a Treatise upon Fortresses
a 2 might

iv *DEDICATION.*

might be an improper Offering to lay at your Feet; but the Talents both of Hero and General are so strictly and eminently united in the Person of Your ROYAL HIGHNESS, that whatever conduces to the Preservation of the Soldier, which is the principal Object of this Science, is sure of Your Gracious Protection.

It is on this Presumption, and the Hopes of facilitating under Your ROYAL HIGHNESS's most August Auspices, the Study of this least cultivated

DEDICATION.

ted Branch of Military Knowledge in the growing Part of the *British* Forces, that altho' myself employ'd in a distant, therefore less agreeable Sphere of Duty, as wanting the Honour and Advantage of being at once form'd and animated by Your ROYAL HIGHNESS's glorious Example, I have dared in this Manner to approach Your ROYAL HIGHNESS's Person ; at the same time begging Leave most humbly to declare, no Attachment is in me so strong as my Ambition to serve Your ROYAL FAMILY, as

vi **DEDICATION.**

I am with the most awful and
loyal Duty,

S I R,

YOUR ROYAL HIGHNESS'S

most devoted

most obedient,

and most humble

Servant,

J. HEATH

THE
AUTHOR'S
PREFACE.

VANITY to be reputed the Founder of some new System, has contributed not a little to encrease the number of those of Fortification; and a fondness for writing in general, already overstock'd us with books on the minute detail of that art; but few, if any before, have in a particular manner and at large, treated of those branches, whose knowledge is so necessary for Officers entrusted with the care of fortifying Places, with certainty to attain that end, which ought to be the principal object of those works, namely, the defence and safety of a State.

If we knew not perfectly the use, or rather different uses of Fortresses, we might neglect making them in parts where great advantages might be drawn from them: If we were ignorant of the exact number necessary, we might engage in a fruitless
a 4 expence,

THE AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

expence, perhaps an inconvenient one; or from a frugality ill-timed leave a passage open to the enemy. If we wanted judgment perfectly to distinguish the natural strength of some situations, we might overlook such as a small expence would fortify beyond all the works which the most skilfull Engineers ever invented to this day, or engage in an attempt to fortify such, as it is not in the power of art ever to make capable of a good defence. If we should commit a mistake either in the dimensions of the Fortress itself, or in the number, figure, solidity, or construction of its works, it could never produce that entire good effect we propos'd to ourselves in building it.

These are the reasons which induced me to write this small Treatise, which is indeed no other than a collection of what the most excellent Historians, and best Authors have said on the Subject; accompanied with many reflexions I have made on the several Fortresses I have seen, both in France, and in foreign countries, where
his

THE AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

his Majesty Louis XIV. of glorious memory, permitted me to go and serve.

This work is divided into nine Chapters, which I have disposed after the manner I thought most convenient, and each Chapter into as many Sections as its length required. I have likewise preserv'd an order in regard to the subject of each section, and given to each, all the explanations, and distinctions, of which they might stand in need; I may possibly on this account be censur'd for having been too Methodical, to which I answer beforehand, that in handling a subject so extensive as this of mine, order and method are absolutely necessary, if one would not be confus'd, but would thoroughly instruct the Reader, which ought to be the chief aim of all who write. Fortresses have so many several Fronts to be consider'd, and such a number of circumstances may occur, in appearance the same, that if the particular points in which they vary were not very distinctly explain'd, one might easily confound them, and at-
tribute

THE AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

tribute to one what properly belongs to another.

The seventh Chapter, which treats of the number, figure, and solidity of the works of a Fortification, may to some persons seem to stand in need of plans, profits, and other draughts, to render more intelligible what is there laid down; these I have omitted, because without very long explanatory notes they would not have been effectual to that purpose with such as are Initiates only, and those who have made any progress either in the Theory or Practice will not want them.

I shall make no Apology to the Reader on account of the style or expression; he is sensible military men should not stand upon such niceties, and that when a work is good in other respects, defects of that kind should be pardon'd.

THE

THE
TRANSLATOR'S
PREFACE.

THIS Piece being in some measure a System of Politicks, as well as a Treatise on Fortification, I think it not amiss to acquaint the Reader, that I engaged in the translation for the sake of the Military part only, but found the Political so interwoven with it, and at the same time so necessary towards explaining the several purposes for which Fortresses are built, as well as how those ends are best obtain'd, that there was no possibility of omitting it without maiming the work. I have therefore given it entire, but leave the Political part to the consideration of Politicians and Statesmen, the Wise and Great, to whom only it belongs to judge of the aptness and expediency of fortifying a King-

The Translator's P R E F A C E.

Kingdom ; the immediate province of the Engineer extending no farther than the making his works as strong as the situation allotted him, and other circumstances, will admit : Tho' both parts are most copiously handled by our Author, who after weighing the interests of States and Kingdoms, has not only treated of the proper measures to be taken for their defence, and shewn what kind of works are fittest for that purpose, but has thought it no debasement of his greater knowledge, to enter into a minute consideration of the several materials of which those works are to be composed.

Upon the whole, if as himself acknowledges, the subject appears to be of great extent, I doubt not but he will appear in his choice of it to have best consulted his own genius ; unless he has suffer'd greatly in the Translation, which is submitted to the judgment of the candid reader.

T A B L E

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

CHAP. I.

Of the Usefulness and Necessity of Fortresses,
Page 1.

SECT. I. Of the usefulness and necessity of Fortresses
in regard to Foreign Enemies 2.

SECT. II. Of the usefulness and necessity of Fortresses
in regard to Domestick Enemies 28.

SECT. III. Wherein is concluded the usefulness and
necessity of Fortresses in general 55.

CHAP. II.

Of the Number of Fortresses necessary in a State 60.

SECT. I. Of the number necessary for the defence of
a State against Foreign Enemies, ac-
cording to its situation 62.

SECT. II. Of the number necessary according to the
extent and power of the State 72.

SECT. III. Of the number necessary according to the
interest of the State 84.

SECT. IV. Of the number necessary in regard to its
Domestick Enemies, according to its
form of Government 86.

SECT. V. Of the number necessary according to the date
of the Government establish'd, the dif-
ferent sentiments of the People in matters
of Religion, their natural disposition
and zeal for the State 91.

CHAP. III.

Of the Parts in which the Fortresses ought to stand 99.

CHAP.

C H A P. IV.

Of the Conditions in point of situation, which render Fortresses important. 112.

C H A P. V.

Of the Conditions which render Fortresses advantageous, or otherwise 133.

SECT. I. *Of the first Condition* 135.

II. *Of the second Condition* 140.

III. *Of the third Condition* 143.

IV. *Of the fourth Condition* 153.

V. *Of the fifth Condition* 177.

VI. *Of the sixth Condition* 191.

VII. *Of the seventh Condition* 204.

VIII. *Of the eighth Condition* 209.

IX. *Of several situations which ought to be preferr'd* 212.

C H A P. VI.

Of the Extent of Fortresses in general 216.

SECT. I. *Of the size proper for new Fortresses, where there are to be few or no inhabitants* 217.

SECT. II. *When there are large Towns, completely built, and standing on the Frontiers, whether it is best to fortify them all round, to leave them quite open, or to fortify them in part only, and either to demolish the remainder, or to leave it to the discretion of the enemy* 228.

C H A P. VII.

Of the quantity of Works a Fortress ought to have, their form and substance 234.

SECT. I. *The sentiments of Engineers on this Subject* 236.

SECT. II. *Particulars to be consider'd by an Engineer in laying out the design of a Fortification* 288.

C H A P. VIII.

Of Order in the construction 310.

SECT. I. *Of the necessary Funds* 312.

SECT.

SECT. II. *Persons necessary for the execution of the Design* 315.

III. *Of the Conduct to be observ'd in the execution* 336.

CHAP. IX.

Of the necessity of keeping Fortresses always provided with every thing necessary for their defence 361.

ERRATA.

- PAGE 7. line 18. for *absolutely*, read *absolute*.
Page 8. l. 8. and 9. dele the two initial Comma's.
P. 17. l. ult. dele *of*.
P. 19. l. ult. for *frither*, r. *farther*.
P. 91. l. 3. r. *Aristodemocracies*.
P. 99. l. 12. for *Place where*, r. *Parts in which*.
P. 105. l. 11. for *Incendiaries*, r. *Burnings*.
P. 117. l. 17. for *Sectos* r. *Sestos*.
P. 122. l. 9. for *vaetæ* r. *vastæ*. l. 10. for *sepe* r. *sepe*.
P. 123. l. 13. for *Catones* r. *Cotones*. l. 14. for *Cotones* r. *Cutones*. line penult. for *quemsmillimæ* r. *quam smillimè*.
P. 124. l. 7. for *Ostium* r. *Ostia*. l. 12. for *wtaer* r. *water*.
P. 125. l. 15. for *Messina* r. *Misenum*.
P. 126. l. 15. for *Messina* r. *Misenum*.
P. 127. l. 5. r. *Misene*. l. 7. r. *Miseni*.
P. 165. l. 12. for *were* r. *was*.
P. 166. l. 9. for *same* r. *like*.
P. 198. l. 16. for *in their substance* r. *in their interior substance*.
P. 223. l. 8. after *Harbour* insert Comma.
P. 228. l. 14. for *them* r. *it*.
P. 273. l. 5. for *grace* r. *graze*. for *to maintain* r. *maintain*. l. 9. for *he pleases* r. *they please*.
P. 274. l. 14. for *is* r. *are*.
P. 310. l. 24. for *consequences* r. *consequence*.
P. 313. l. 9. for *Interests of State* r. *Interests of a State*.
P. 334. l. 8. for *demands* r. *demand*.
P. 335. l. 17. dele *our*.
P. 348. l. 3. dele *should*.
P. 352. l. 27. for *by* r. *and by*.

Section II. Persons necessary for the execution of the

III. Of the Conduct of the War in the East.

222

XI AA H C

Of the results of keeping I shall write you.

TRUST

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

10-11-68

7

1. The first part of the document is a list of names and titles, including "The Hon. Mr. Justice" and "The Hon. Mr. Justice".

31222 8 9 375 10 1 1

101

10-1-68

A
TREATISE
On the Safety and Maintenance of
STATES,
By the Means of
FORTRESSES.

CHAP. I.

*Of the Usefulness and Necessity of
Fortresses.*

IT is a Problem of long standing in Politicks whether Fortresses are useful or necessary in a State. The question is of very great extent. In order to treat of it in as distinct a manner as possible, we shall divide this Chapter into three Sections: In the first we shall demonstrate the Usefulness and Necessity of such Fortresses as are built for the defence of a State against foreign or external enemies.

A

In

2 *The safety, &c. of States,*

In the second we shall shew the like motives subsisting in regard to those built with a view to domestick or internal enemies, and in the third section shall conclude the usefulness and necessity of Fortresses in general.

SECTION I.

Of the usefulness and necessity of Fortresses, in regard to Foreign Enemies.

AS the Politicians who are against all Fortresses in a State, condemn them in those very respects in which the others approve them, or to express myself more clearly, as the one maintain the direct contrary of what the others advance, the usefulness of them will sufficiently appear when we shall have refuted, one after another, the several reasons offered by those who think them disadvantageous.

The Politicians who condemn the use of Fortresses in regard to foreign enemies, make the following objections:

Objection I.

It would turn to a much better account if the expence of their construction and maintenance were spared, in order to raise Armies with the Money if there should be occasion.

Whoever

Whoever is of this way of thinking we desire to inform us, how a Prince, let him be ever so powerful, can secure himself against an unexpected attack from a neighbouring Prince of equal power, without Fortresses? In answer to this, it may be said, that when one Prince sees another arm he ought to arm himself. This might be sufficient if there were only those two in the world, of whom there are so great a number, that if some are at peace, others are at war; and it may so happen, that in the very articles of their agreement and making up matters betwixt themselves, they may join in a league to fall upon a third, and this so secretly carried that the party concern'd may not have the least intimation of it; as happen'd to the *Venetians* at the League of *Cambray*, of which whole Treaty * nothing farther transpired than that it was a confirmation of the peace betwixt the two Princes; and the League was kept so secret, that the *Venetians* felt the effects of it before they receiv'd the intelligence. Besides, when a Prince takes arms, he pretends his object is some other State, as the Grand Seignior did in regard to the Isle of *Candia*, and has done on many other occasions; on which the Prince preparing for war doth it so covertly and with such speed that his intended enemy can have no time to put himself upon his defence. *Cræsus* King of *Lydia*,

* *Mezeray*, 1509.

4 *The safety, &c. of States,*

the richest Monarch of his Age, was so unexpectedly attack'd by *Cyrus*, that he was forc'd to leave his Capital *Sardis*, to draw what troops he could together, and give his enemy battle: He lost the day, retired with the broken remains of his army to *Sardis*, which the enemy forc'd, took him prisoner, and strip'd him both of his treasures and his Kingdom; Whereas had his Frontiers been guarded by Fortresses too considerable for an enemy to have left behind him, and strong enough to have made a resistance for some time, he might have expected succours from his allies, recruited his army with his treasures, march'd out to meet the enemy, and perhaps been Conqueror at last; for it has been often seen in war, that the party too weak at first to make resistance hath had the better on't in the end, as happen'd to those *Venetians* themselves, who by means of their treasure wholly recover'd at last all they had lost at the beginning of the Siege of *Candy*,

Objection II.

It would better answer the purposes of a State, even to maintain Armies constantly in the field, as the Romans did formerly, and as the Turks do at this day, and as did the Viscomtis formerly Sovereigns of Milan, particularly Azzo Visconti, who kept
twenty

twenty thousand horse generally in pay; this would be a certain means of keeping subjects to their duty, neighbouring states in awe, to prevent any designs of the enemy, to surprise them if supine or negligent, and to take advantage of any favourable unexpected opportunity that might offer.

It is for very powerful Princes only to put this Maxim in practice, and that not without grievous inconveniences attending it. It is not altogether prudent for a Prince to put his whole confidence in a single Army, which an epidemical distemper may happen to seize and reduce to nothing. Soldiers may mutiny and revolt of themselves, or their Leaders may seduce them. Who deprived *Galba* both of his life and Empire, but *Otho* with *Galba's* own Soldiers? Who deposed *Otho*, but that army which the Empire kept in *Germany*, of which *Vitellius* assumed the Command? And to what other cause is the loss of the same Empire and death of *Vitellius* to be assign'd, but to the Army kept by the *Romans* in the *Levant*, and brought to *Rome* by *Vespasian*? How many *Turkish* Emperors have been deposed by their Janisaries? in the very last Age *Ibrahim* was strangled and his Son *Mahomet* IV. placed on his throne. And have not those Emperors fre-

6 *The safety, &c. of States,*

quently been constrain'd shamefully to deliver up to those Janisaries one or other of their chief Ministers in order to his being put to death?

To this it may be replied, that as there is a possibility of the same inconvenience happening to any Prince who in time of war raises an Army and sends it against a foreign enemy, he must therefore never have recourse to arms. To which we answer, the inconvenience before mention'd is much less to be apprehended in time of War than in Peace; in War the near neighbourhood of the enemy finds the soldier full employment, he is never idle, but constantly either at work or exercise; this prevents him falling into slothfulness, laziness, or debauchery, vices that are the source of factions, commotions, treasons, and revolts in the military world.

It may likewise be objected, that the Garrisons in Fortresses may revolt and the Governors turn traitors to their trust; such a thing may indeed happen, but a single Garrison is not to be compared to an Army; and when troops are dispers'd and shut up in separate Garrisons the infection of licentiousness and misrule is generally of a less evil tendency than when the whole are encamp'd together, where the feasibility of making an escape after any evil committed emboldens them to the attempt; cut off as they are from commerce with men of other professions, they lose all sentiments of humanity and civil society; a certain habit and fami-

by the means of Fortresses.

7

familiarity they contract by conversing only with one another make them a people of themselves, as closely link'd in bonds of society and interest as the inhabitants of one and the same city can possibly be.

A Prince who would establish his Power on his Fortresses might put the most faithful and best affected of his subjects into the places of greatest importance; it is not possible that all his garrisons should at once revolt by consent, and if only a few fall off, they will hardly be of so much weight, in a large or even in a mean Principality, as to turn the balance of power absolutely against the Sovereign, without leaving him some resource; whereas an Army composed of the whole strength of a State is absolutely mistress of the fate both of Sovereign and People.

Objection III.

A Prince should use no other means for his defence, but the bravery of his Citizens.

' 'Tis a shameful and dishonourable thing,
' says *Aristotle*,* when we have to do with an
' enemy no more in number than ourselves, to
' fly to walls for our protection, but since
' there is a possibility of that enemy advancing
' with more forces it is extremely proper and

* Id. Politic. lib. 7. cap. 2.

absolutely necessary to fortify ourselves strongly, unless we chuse to be cut in pieces, or led in triumph and reduced to slavery; especially at this time of day, when Machines for attacking Towns have been invented with all possible industry. What more could *Aristotle* have said, if our great guns had been then in use?

If Stratagems are allow'd in War, why not Fortresses? being innocent means for our protection, to which nature has by a ready instinct inclin'd all animals. The fox when wearied by the hounds, earths in the first hole he finds, or leaps into the first tree that offers. The wild boar intrenches himself in the thickest of the forest, the stag takes the stream, and the roebuck climbs the summit of the rock. Nature herself has taught mankind the first principles of Fortification. The almost inaccessible rocks and mountains, places surrounded with abyss of rivers, seas, or other waters, these furnish'd him with the first hints of raising ramparts with high walls, and digging deep ditches before them, to enable him to resist the attacks of a superior number of his enemies.

Objection IV:

Fortresses serve only to raise the spirits of the assailants, and to discourage and dishearten the assail'd, who see there is

by the means of Fortresses. 9

no confidence placed in their valour; 'tis on this account Plato has condemn'd them, and Lycurgus for the same reasons would not allow that Sparta should be fortified. The Citizens asking him the question why he would not permit their city to be wall'd, he gave them for answer, the city was not without its walls, for it was girt round with men of valour, not with bricks; and a Lacedemonian seeing a city inclosed with fine stately walls, what a delicate seraglio is that, says he, for the women within!

'Tis true that Plato speaking of Fortresses commends the custom of the *Lacedemonians* in not allowing of them, and says,* they were apt to make men effeminate, slothful, and cowards, imagining themselves there out of all reach of insults from the enemy; however he has not condemn'd them absolutely, for afterwards he says, ' Whenever men have occasion to make
' use of walls for their protection they ought to
' be built in such a manner that their inclosure
' may be of a circular form, and their situation
' high, to have the greater command, &c.

* *Plato's Commonwealth*, Book 6.

10 *The safety, &c. of States,*

Lycurgus himself, that most excellent Legislator, was much deceived in the particular of Fortresses. When fortune frown'd upon his country, how often was the city of *Sparta* on the very brink of being taken and destroy'd by her enemies? and was not *Agessilaus* from the very same cause constrain'd to retreat in the midst of his conquests, and leaving victory behind him fly to the defence of his Capital? it may therefore with truth be affirm'd, Fortresses are no less useful to Princes desirous to extend their Dominions, than to those who are willing to confine themselves within the ancient limits of their States.

Aristotle affirms,* that ' to pretend to say
' that a Town ought not to be wall'd round
' for fear of the citizens becoming effeminate,
' cowardly, and slothful by those means, is the
' same thing as to say we ought to chuse the
' open plains for our habitation, where we may
' be most easily attack'd. That we should level
' the mountains and steep rocks, and that people's
' houses ought not to have walls about
' them; whereas it is to be consider'd, that
' when towns have ramparts for their defence,
' they either may or may not be made use of,
' as best suits the occasion; but where these
' are wanting, there is no choice but a necessity
' of engaging in the open field; this being the
' case, towns ought not only to be walled

* De Politic. lib. 7. cap. 2.

' round,

by the means of Fortresses. 11

‘ round, but all imaginable care and pains
‘ taken that those walls be properly constructed.’

This Argument of *Aristotle's* is extremely judicious, for a party may happen to be so inferior in numbers to the enemy, as to be incapable of making any resistance except in a Fortress only, and having one to retire to, may from thence oblige the enemy to abandon their enterprize. ‘ * The *Byzantines* finding themselves too weak to oppose *Philip* of *Macedon*,
‘ quitted the field to him, and shut themselves
‘ up in their own city, by which means they
‘ obliged that Prince to draw off his forces,
‘ being unwilling to engage in a long siege.
‘ *Asdrubal* from the same motives shut up all
‘ his troops in towns on the approach of *Scipio*,
‘ and by those measures obliged him to send
‘ his own into winter quarters, either for that
‘ the season was too far advanced for undertaking Sieges, or not chusing to engage in
‘ the attack of so many Places.

When there is not too great a disparity of numbers to hope for victory in a pitched battle, and that measure is thought most eligible, Fortresses are no impediment to the pursuing it, and the taking such a step cannot but extremely animate the Soldiery, by the confidence they see placed in their valour, and equally tend to the disheartening of the enemy, when

* *Frontin.* lib. I. cap. 3.

they

they see their adversaries, tho' inferior in number, voluntarily foregoing an assured advantage to engage them upon equal terms, which they can attribute to no other cause but a contempt of themselves, and a daring confidence of success: Whereas had they no Fortresses their enemies would regard that action as the effect of necessity only. These were the reasons, or nearly the same, which **Miltiades* made use of to prevail on the *Athenians* to leave their city and engage in the open field those nations which came to attack them, led by *Datis* and *Artaphenes*.

The Politicians that approve of Fortresses maintain, that instead of exciting the courage of an enemy, they oftener turn the edge of his appetite for war, not chusing lightly to engage with one whom they know possess'd of a strong hold, and well retrench'd. They even say, they augment the courage of the assail'd. † Cardinal *Richlieu* was of this opinion, especially in regard to the *French* nation. 'Fortresses, says he, are the more necessary in this Kingdom, as the unsteadiness of our countrymen rendering them unfit for foreign conquests, their natural valour would make them invincible at home in their own defence, provided they had large towns so well fortified and supplied with necessaries of all

* *Corn. Nepos, de vita Miltiadis.*

† Political Will of *Richlieu*.

‘ kinds, that they might have an opportunity
‘ of manifesting their courage, without being
‘ exposed to the enduring or great hardships,
‘ the only enemies they have to fear.

‘ A well fortified Frontier is capable either of
‘ putting an enemy out of conceit with form-
‘ ing designs against the State, or of putting a
‘ check to his career, if he is bold enough to
‘ make an attempt by open force.

‘ The volatile spirits of our people require
‘ some stay or support against those impressions
‘ of terror they are capable of receiving from
‘ an unexpected attack, were they not per-
‘ fectly well assured, that all the approaches
‘ to this Kingdom are barr’d by ramparts so
‘ strong, that no foreign violence can possibly
‘ force them at once, or till after much time
‘ spent make themselves masters of them.

Objection V.

*When war is once declared, 'tis not in For-
tresses alone to stop the progress of the
enemy, or to prevent his incursions; nor
should he attack them, would the resi-
stance they were capable of making, af-
ford sufficient time for raising their siege;
for when once an enemy is master of
the field, he is very soon master of the
fortres-*

14 *The safety, &c. of States,*

fortresses: And Machiavel says, that when a Prince is without good Armies let him have as many Places as he thinks fit both in the heart of his country and on his frontiers, they will only be prejudicial or at best useless to him; prejudicial, because if they are weak they are easily taken from him and turn'd against him, or if too strong for the enemy to carry, he will leave them behind him, and consequently they will become useless, for Armies composed of dauntless fellows, if not opposed by other armies making head against them, march strait forwards without troubling themselves about what places they leave behind them, as is evident from History; and of which we have seen an instance in our own time in Francis-Mary Duke of Urbin, who left ten of the enemies towns behind him, and without giving himself any trouble about them went and beseiged that of Urbin.*

* Political Discourse, book 11, chap. 2, 4.

If by Fortresses *Machiavel* means such inconsiderable Places as may be carried sword in hand, or such as are too small to contain a garrison capable of giving any disturbance to that army which contemns them, he is in the right; but if by Fortresses he means as he ought to do, Places fortified according to the rules of art, such as are not to be taken without being attack'd in form, and large enough to contain a body of troops capable of intercepting a convoy, foraging party, or other detachment, of incommoding or harrassing an army on its march, or in a word, either forcing the others to come and attack them, or to quit the country, his Proposition is false. The besieging such Places is a work of time, destroys abundance of men, is the ruin of an army, and when they are defended with obstinacy things sometimes take a turn during the Siege.

Many famous Politicians are of sentiments very opposite to those of *Machiavel* in this respect; they think that Fortresses upon these occasions are very near as effectual as Armies in the Field, because where a single one only presents itself to the enemy, if he durst not attack it, he durst not leave it behind him and penetrate into the country, the only means he has of preventing the assailed's drawing all his forces together to give him battle. The *Danes* about fifteen years ago having made a descent upon *Scania*, wanting either resolution or necessities to make themselves masters of *Christianstadt*,

Christianstadt, which guards the Pass betwixt that Province and *Sweden*, all they could do was to over-run and ravage that Province; in the mean time Count *Stembock* having drawn the Militia and what regular troops there were at that time in the Kingdom together, march'd in quest of the *Danes* whom he attack'd and defeated, and obliged them to repass the seas with the broken remains of their army. Had not *Christianstadt* been fortified the *Danes* might have penetrated at once into *Sweden*, and had never permitted Count *Stembock* to form a large body of an army, at least might have obliged him to come and engage them at a disadvantage in those Straits betwixt *Sweden* and *Scania*.

If the enemy attacks the Fortress, it will cost him some time so to do, and whilst he is weakening his own numbers the Prince assail'd will have the opportunity of drawing his troops together and forming his army. In the year 1544 *Charles V.* having march'd into *France* with all his forces, and the flower of those of the Empire, was detain'd six weeks by *S. Dizier*, where he was forc'd to spend the best part of the summer, and but for the Peace then concluded, was on the point of making an inglorious return into his own country, after nothing done.

Where a Prince has not a sufficient number of forces himself, Fortresses give him time to expect succours from his allies, and afterwards

to march to the relief of those Fortresses which are attack'd; did not the long defence made by the city of *Casal* give time for the allies of its Sovereign to march to its relief? and that of *Vienna* to the army of the Emperor *Leopold*, and of *Sobieski* King of *Poland* to march in conjunction to its deliverance in 1683? *Casal* therefore preserv'd the *Monferat* to the Duke of *Mantua*, and *Vienna Austria* to the Emperor.

If the Prince attack'd thinks he shall hardly be able to oblige the enemy to raise the siege, being either too strong for him, or too advantageously posted, after throwing some succours into the Place of that kind they stand most in need of, he may go and fall upon some town of the enemy. *Henry IV.* being determined to march into *Flanders*, because he would leave no town behind him, laid siege to *La Fere*; by this means the Arch-duke *Albert* had time to draw his forces together, but not being strong enough to oblige the King to raise the siege, after throwing some succours into the Place by means of the famous *George Bassa*, he march'd himself and attack'd *Calais*, a town of much more consequence than *La Fere*; where he so effectually intrench'd himself, and made so good a disposition of his quarters, that it was not possible for the *French* to relieve it; at last he took it by storm.

There is indeed a very recent instance which might be produced to the contrary of what I am now speaking of, 'tis what happen'd in regard

18 *The safety, &c. of States,*

to the States of *Holland* in the year 1672, of Campaign of *Lewis XIV.* where we saw a great many good towns, which had formerly distinguish'd themselves by the good defence they had made, submit to the arms of the King of *France* in a very short time; but this example, applicable as it may seem to the present purpose, deserves no kind of consideration. The Places were ill provided, or not in a condition of defence. The great warlike abilities as well as power of the Prince by whom they were attack'd; the suddenness of the attack itself, the surprize and perhaps irresolution of their Governors might make them for a time forget what they ow'd their country. Armies themselves under such circumstances have never had better success.

Objection VI.

Fortresses in time of war will not serve as places of refuge for the people of a whole country to retire into with their effects; too great a number would be wanting for such a purpose, which might be falling into another dangerous inconvenience; the country therefore is not less exposed to pillage and waste on their account, the disorder and confusion there is not the less; The affairs

fairs of commerce, the vintage, and the administration of justice are not the less interrupted, and the inhabitants of the country enjoy never the more quiet or security; in short, the rage of war is not the less violent.

It is not necessary that Fortresses should be so large as to receive all the Peasants in their neighbourhood, and all their effects in general, in order to prevent the chief disorders of war; nor even supposing they were so, and stored with a sufficient quantity of provisions, would it be prudent in a governor to admit them at a time when he is threaten'd with a siege, unless they had no where else to retreat, as in some island remote from the shore. Such a multitude of men, women and children as the first panick would drive into the Place, struck with the desolation of their country, the terrors of a siege, and there all crowded and stived together, might breed a contagion; and the extreme misery of their condition could not but incite the garrison to wish to free themselves at any rate from so sad a spectacle. The benefit those of the country might receive from Fortresses, in case of any sudden alarm is the opportunity of securing their principal effects in those which are nearest them, and themselves to retire farther into the country; but if they have

timely notice before-hand, they may carry their whole effects along with them into those retreats where the enemy cannot penetrate, having sufficient leisure so to do; in which case the profit they will be able to make by the advanced prices of what they shall save and sell afterwards, will make them ample amends for the damages done their houses or lands by the enemy; but if they have only time to pursue the first course, the loss they will sustain cannot be very considerable. In speaking after this manner we suppose the war executed with its utmost rigours, for when these particular points are settled by Conventions, as they were in *Flanders* and upon the *Rhine* in the last wars of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the war is so far from ruining the inhabitants of the country, that it is upon some occasions profitable to them; they may deposite their best effects in the places of strength, they may stay at home in safety themselves, they may carry on their vintage, the town inhabitants their trades, and justice be as regularly administer'd as in time of peace under the protection of those Fortresses.

Objection VII.

If in the course of war any defeat should happen, or an opening given to the enemy, Fortresses can neither put a stop to the conquering army, nor give time

by the means of Fortresses. 21

time for their own to rally, or for drawing new troops together, or waiting the arrival of their allies, in order to recommence hostilities.

This Proposition may be refuted by an infinite number of examples to the contrary; what stoppt *Hannibal* on his march against the *Romans*, but the long defence made by *Spoletto*, and by other small places which he attack'd? What preserv'd *Flanders* to the King of *Spain*, after the loss of the battle of *Nieuport* in the year 1600, but the Fortresses? the *Hollanders* had a compleat victory, and remain'd masters of the field, yet were neither able to make themselves masters of *Flanders*, nor even won two inches of ground. Had there been no Fortresses in *Piedmont* after the loss of the battle of *Marseilles* (1693) it had follow'd the fate of the rest of the Duke of *Savoy's* Dominions, the present King of *Sardinia*; and the winning those of *Fleurus* in 1690, *Nerwind* in 1693, &c. had made *Lewis XIV.* master of all *Flanders*, but for the same impediments. Examples still more recent might be produced in proof of this assertion, but it is a truth so well known we think them unnecessary.

Objection VIII.

When a State having Fortresses is once lost the Prince cannot hope to recover his

dominions, but after abundance of time and at a very great expence; on the other hand, if a State having no Fortresses is easily lost, 'tis as easily recover'd.

It will admit of no dispute, that where towns lie open, the recovery of such a State will be attended with so much the less difficulty; we have an instance of this in the history of *Spain*; in the year 712, the children of king *Vitiza* having been driven out of that Kingdom by *Roderic*, whose father *Vitiza* had deprived of sight, retired into *Africa*, where having obtain'd from *Muxa*, the Calife of the *Saracens* Lieutenant, considerable succours under the command of *Tarec*, that General without any difficulty, and in a very short time, made himself master of the greatest part of the Kingdom, *Vitiza* having dismantled all the towns in *Spain* *Toledo* only excepted. But if the recovery of a Kingdom whose towns are fortified is an undertaking of difficulty, the conquest of it, which is necessary in the first place, surely cannot be less so; the conquest therefore necessarily preceding the recovery we must conclude that it is for the advantage of the Princes possessors to have Fortresses on their Dominions, or where they have them not, to make them. If when there are no Fortresses on a State another Prince should make himself master of it and build them

them afterwatds, the Prince disposseſs'd will not be able in that caſe to recover his country with the ſame eaſe he loſt it: And indeed all expectations of that kind will be deſperate. *Mahomet II.* having made it his obſervation, that altho' his predeceſſors had often made themſelves maſters of the town of *Tauris* in *Perſia*, and of all the adjacent country, yet having no Fortreſſes on the ſpot, their armies had been as often obliged to retire and the *Perſians* recover'd it; he was no ſooner poſſeſs'd of it himſelf, but he built one, and ſecured by that ſtep both his poſſeſſion and his conqueſts. *Selim I.* Emperor of the *Turks*, did the like after conquering the Dominions of the Sultan of *Egypt*; and the *Spaniards* purſued the ſame meaſures when they made themſelves maſters of the *Valtoline*.

Objection IX.

Laſtly, they who diſapprove of Fortreſſes ſay, *That a good army is ſufficient to preſerve and inſure a ſtate to its ſovereign, without the aſſiſtance of one fortified town, which fortreſſes cannot do without an army, becauſe they are all of them liable to be taken either by force, by ſtratagem, or by famine; by force thro' the violence of*

artillery, which the stoutest walls are unable to resist, while their fury prevents the besieged within from making new retrenchments. By surprize, thro' the negligence of those who ought to guard them, or thro' their avarice or infidelity, as happen'd to the city of Milan in the year 1499, thro' the infamous treachery of Bernard Curtius. Lastly, by Famine, from their want of sufficient store-room to contain such a quantity of provisions as is necessary to subsist the garrison for a longer time than the besiegers army ought or may be expected to lie before the town.

The former of these two propositions is false, no event being more uncertain than that of a battle; small armies have frequently overthrown much greater numbers than themselves, and put them entirely to the rout; of this history affords us an infinity of examples, and no sooner has fortune declared for either party in one single battle but if the unfortunate have no Fortresses the party favour'd carries all before him, none thinking it a disgrace to submit to the laws of the conqueror. Where there are

no fortified towns the loss of a single battle may involve the whole Kingdom in its fate. In the civil wars between the Houses of *York* and *Lancaster*;^{*} the Kingdom of *England* having no Fortresses, was three times conquer'd in six months. *Bohemia* having no fortified towns, *Frederick* Palatine, who had been proclaimed King lost the whole Kingdom by losing the single battle of *Prague*; and for a later instance, had the Frontiers of *Poland* been fortified on the side next *Livonia*, *Charles XII.* King of *Sweden*, had never been able to have penetrated into the heart of that great Kingdom, there to succour the malecontents, engage others to declare for him, oblige King *Augustus* to fight him at a disadvantage; and at last, by carrying the war into *Saxony*, force him to abdicate and renounce the Crown of *Poland*: And from the same cause, after the ill success of the battle of *Pultowa*, King *Stanislaus* who had succeeded him, was obliged to abandon his conquest, and leave King *Augustus* to remount the throne; so that a Sovereign without Fortresses can never be assured of the stability of his fortune.

The second proposition, that Fortresses without an army can never preserve and insure a State to its Sovereign, being all liable to be lost either by force, surprize, or famine, determines nothing against Fortresses; it is very certain that many of them have been taken by one or other of those means, but it doth not
thence

* An. 1471.

thence follow, that all must necessarily be so; there are an infinite number of examples in which attempts of each kind have miscarried; amongst those which have been attack'd by open force did not the city of *Metz* by its stout and obstinate resistance force the Emperor *Charles V.* to raise the siege? Did not the city of *Vienna* in the year 1529 resist all the powerful efforts of the formidable army of *Soliman II.*? Did not the city of *Malta* in the year 1565 share the same glory? besides a multitude of others. And of those which have been attack'd by surprize, as *Arras*, *Geneva*, *Old Brisack*, *Cremona*, and many others, were they taken by those means? Lastly, of Fortresses which have been attack'd by famine, which of all three is the most terrible, the city of *Naples*, *Leyden* in *Holland*, *Canice* in *Hungary*, *Cremma* in *Italy*, &c. were they not all preserv'd with their respective garrisons?

In the life of the Duke d'*Alba* there is a speech on the subject of the advantages of Fortresses, deliver'd to the people of *Rome* assembled before the Capitol, by the Duke d'*Urfini*, who was as fam'd for eloquence as valour, and which is well worth relating.

' When triumphant *Rome* saw herself mistress
' of the world, when either her own armies
' or the profound submission paid her by all
' nations had left her nothing to fear, she fortified, not that she was afraid, but that she
' might never have cause to fear; that if the
' occasion

occasion should offer, she might at least have the means of retiring within herself, there to make a stand and keep fortune at a bay, till victory should have time to declare on her side. Let us but remember how the Great *Alexander* saw fortune ready to abandon him before *Tyre*; and that even victorious *Rome* was baffled before *Numantia*. Be a people ever so brave, ever so indefatigable, if they have no fortified towns their greatness must be of short duration, and we may compare them to those huge bulks of matter, which having nothing stable in them fall to pieces in a very short time? 'tis what the experience of several ages has proved beyond all possibility of doubt: Besides, when once a panick has seiz'd an army, the enemy is sure ever after to beat them in the open field, whereas if they meet but with a river for their General to encamp behind, they resume their courage and very frequently repel the enemy? so easy a matter is it, to stop the career of a conqueror? but if they have a strong town into which to throw themselves, that conqueror is no more, his efforts are vain, the vanquish'd then have time to breathe and recover their spirits; they harraß and weaken their enemies by frequent sallies, or by attacks hardily maintain'd, and find them employment for abundance of time; in the mean while he sets his new levies on foot, brings powerful succours into the field, ruins
the

the besieging army, either by cutting off their supply of water, or forcing their lines. How many Great Leaders have miscarried before a well fortified Castle; how many mighty armies entirely destroy'd before the ramparts of a Citadel? where they have not only the enemy to cope with, but the heavens likewise; the piercing cold, scorching heat, rain, snow, hail, storms, want, sickness, rage and despair. Who is not sensible how greatly it avail'd the Imperialists the taking *Francis I.* prisoner? had not the good fortifications and resolute defence of *Pavia* detain'd him, he had never fallen into their hands. *Charles V.* almost constantly victorious in the open field, found the walls of *Marseilles* and of *Metz* the boundaries of his Victory and Fortune; from whence he was glad to scamper, tho' with a very considerable loss.

SECTION II.

Of the usefulness and necessity of Fortresses in regard to domestick enemies.

THE Politicians who disapprove of Fortresses, object to them as follows:

Objection I.

Princes can have no better means of defence

by the means of Fortresses. 29

fence than the true and faithful affection of their subjects, and 'tis more for the advantage of all Sovereigns, to make themselves belov'd than fear'd.

We agree that a Prince can have no better Citadels than the hearts of his people, and that those alone are sufficient to maintain his authority; but as we can assure ourselves of nothing from the inconstant nature of mankind, who love to-day and hate to-morrow, without cause or reason, it is necessary that a Sovereign, tho' ever so well belov'd, should be in a capacity of making himself fear'd likewise; that is to say, he must have Citadels, otherwise upon every the most trifling occasion, he will be left entirely to his subjects discretion.

Objection II.

Citadels built against the subject are the bane of that love and confidence they ought to place in their Sovereign, and instead thereof beget perpetual fears and jealousies lest the Sovereign should make use of them as instruments for their oppression; for proof of this they instance the joy the Grecian cities express'd

30 *The safety, &c. of States,*

*express'd * when the Romans caus'd their Citadels to be demolish'd; they instance likewise the behaviour of the people of Antwerp, when that front of their Citadel next the town was demolish'd pursuant to the advice of the Prince of Orange; their joy was so excessive, and such numbers of workmen voluntarily offer'd themselves, meerly for the sake of the agreeableness of the task, that even ladies of the first rank in the night time could not forbear resorting thither, till tippling and dancing introducing farther irregularities, the night-working was forbid. In imitation of Antwerp's example those of Ghent, Utrecht, Valenciennes, Lisle, and many other places, celebrated the demolition-day of their Citadels as the second birth-day of their Liberties.*

If they are good subjects, well affected, and of the same Religion with their Prince, they will not only be satisfied, but pleas'd with any

* *Strada, lib. 9.*

measures he shall take for securing their own quiet and tranquility; but if there be any evil-minded people amongst them seditiously inclin'd, and of a Religion different from that of their Sovereign, the Citadels will be a curb upon them, and a sure means of keeping them to their duty: How many great and opulent Cities have been pillag'd, sack'd, and utterly destroy'd for chastisement of their rebellion, the greater part of whose inhabitants, and all the honefter and richer part have had no share in the revolt, tho' forc'd to acquiesce in it, to avoid the manifest danger of opposing it, or of expressing the least dislike? When a Prince builds Citadels good subjects ought no more to entertain suspicion than when he makes laws for inflicting exemplary punishment on thieves, assassins, and other offenders, and orders some scaffold to be built for putting them in execution. The joy which the *Greek* cities, the inhabitants of *Antwerp*, and other towns in the *Low Countries* express'd upon the demolishing their Citadels merits no sort of consideration; 'tis the usual practice of the common people upon any new incident in a State, to form to themselves, without knowing why, some subject matter of hope or fear, and to set no bounds to their joy or grief upon these occasions.

Objection III.

They are of no use, says Machiavel,
but

but to persuade a Prince he is in a condition to force his subjects, to put him upon experiments, and make him harsh and rigorous to his people in time of peace; a wise and a good Prince, says Machiavel, who would not give occasion for his children to turn one day disobedient, will never attempt to build Citadels, to make them sensible betimes that he depends more on the affection of his subjects for the security of his throne than upon all the measures of violence; he instances the example of Count Sforza, who was no sooner Duke of Milan than he built a Citadel, which, instead of being the support, proved the ruin of his descendants, from the imagination they entertain'd, that by pursuing the same measures they would be able effectually to secure themselves against any resentment of their subjects, on whom they accordingly exercis'd all acts of tyranny; whereas had they been without Citadels, and unadvisedly maltreated their subjects,

Subjects, they might sooner have been made sensible of the dangers they were exposing themselves to, and have fallen into better measures.

What *Machiavel* says may be true upon certain occasions; if a Prince is of unbounded ambition, and his Principality elective, he may employ his Citadels to the purpose of making it hereditary in his family. If he is immoderate in his expences, or excessively covetous, or evil advised by his Ministers, he may make use of them to tyrannize over his people. These are the circumstances under which Citadels may be inconvenient, but they are not for this reason to be condemn'd, if we would not confound the reasonable use of things with the abuse which may have been made of them, or the equity of the means with the crime of the misapplication. 'Tis in political measures as in physical medicines; if the most excellent of the latter which nature has afforded us, are applied to the cure of other ills than those for which they were intended, instead of forwarding the cure they are the death of the patient; this doth not however derogate from their goodness, neither ought the use of them to be forbid on this account; all is owing to the knavery or unskillfulness of the physician: 'Tis the same thing with regard to Citadels, the purpose for which they ought to be built is by the assistance of a

C small

34 *The Safety, &c. of States,*

small number to restrain the seditious and evil-designing; if other use hath been made of them, they are not for that reason to be set aside. Were apprehensions of this nature to take place we must have no arms in our Magazines, nor money in the King's Treasury, much less an army of regular forces, all which may be applied to much more dangerous purposes than Citadels are capable of, which are fix'd to their bases.

Objection IV.

If a Prince, according to Machiavel, builds them only, with intent to oppress his people, that oppression will animate them so strongly to his destruction, that Fortresses which put him upon those measures will not be capable of protecting him from their resentment, for proof of which he quotes the two instances following.*

Pope Julius II. after having driven Bentivoglio out of Bologna, caused a Citadel to be built there, and put a Governour into it, to push those people to extremities, who finding themselves

* Politic. Disc. book 2. chap. 24.

so injuriously treated rose up in arms, and the first thing they did was to raze the Citadel; which consequently was of no benefit to the Pope, but on the contrary of great disservice to him; for had he treated those people better, it would have been better for himself.

But amongst the many examples of this kind, the most recent, the most remarkable in every respect, and the properest instance for showing what abuse Citadels are capable of, and the advantages of being without them, is what lately happen'd at Genoa; all the world knows in what manner that city, in the year 1507, rebell'd against Louis King of France, who at last went himself in person with all his forces, to bring them to reason; having done this, he built the strongest Citadel there that ever was known, the situation and the manner in which it was fortified, rendering it impregnable; for it stands upon the summit of a hill which extends itself into the sea,

call'd by the Genoese Codefa, commanding both the harbour and a part of the town. It happen'd afterwards, that in the year 1512, the French were driven out of Italy, and the Genoese revolted, notwithstanding the Citadel; Octavius Fregosa, who had made himself master of the town laid siege to the Citadel, and by the utmost good conduct in his measures took it by famine in sixteen months time.

'Tis certain when a Prince makes use of his Citadels to oppress his subjects, that oppression will incline them at least to wish to free themselves from his subjection; but 'tis not equally certain their aversion, tho' ever so great, will put them upon attempting to revolt; if the Inhabitants of *Bologna* and of *Genoa* were irritated to such a degree against their Sovereigns, as to take those measures notwithstanding their Citadels, there are on the other hand an infinite number of examples, where the people have been restrain'd by Fortresses of that kind.

Objection V.

In peace they may be of service, enabling the Prince to do his people what mischief

I
trea
that
hav
in p
othe

chief he pleaseth, but in time of war they are entirely useless, because both subject and enemy regard them in the same light, and 'tis not possible for them to hold out against both. He instances the descendants of Count Sforza, who having render'd themselves odious by that means, were despoil'd of their States, as soon as an enemy was found to take up arms against them; and so far was their Citadel from being any defence to them under those circumstances, that they would have been much better enabled to have resisted the fury of the French with their own faithful and well-affected subjects, and without their Citadel, than they were with the Citadel and those subjects whom they had outraged.

If a Prince makes use of his Citadels to maltreat his subjects in time of peace, we agree that if a war happens, in which himself should have the disadvantage, that will happen to him in particular, which never fails to happen to all others in his circumstances. When a people

38 *The safety, &c. of States,*

have been ill-used by their Prince in his prosperity, Fortune no sooner frowns upon him than they take that opportunity to reduce his power, instead of receiving assistance from them he hears of nothing but grievances and ill-humours; for the people's dread of their Sovereign is of no longer duration than his own power to enforce his commands.

Objection VI.

They are of no use to preserve a conquest.

* *The examples of France and Genoa are of themselves sufficient, says Machiavel, to evince that error, to which however I shall subjoin that of the Florentines and Pisa. The Florentines built Forts to bridle those of Pisa, without considering they had always been declared enemies to our Republick, that they had been always a free people, and had look'd upon rebellion as the only means of recovering their liberties; and consequently, that to make ourselves masters of them we should have put the old Roman Policy in*

* Disc. Polit. lib. 11. cap. 24.

practice,

by the means of Fortresses. 39

‘ practice, either to unite them to our
‘ own State, or utterly destroy them;
‘ for did not we see the effects of Ci-
‘ tadels at the coming of Charles VIII.
‘ all of which surrender’d to him ei-
‘ ther thro’ the treachery or cowardice
‘ of their Governors: And thus, if
‘ had there been none at all, the Flo-
‘ rentines would never have depended
‘ on them for the preserving of Pisa,
‘ nor those Citadels serv’d only as
‘ gates of entrance for the King to
‘ pass thro’ to the city; and it is pos-
‘ sible such measures might have been
‘ fallen upon for its defence without
‘ Fortresses as might effectually have
‘ preserved it from the French, at
‘ least, it is certain they could not have
‘ been attended with worse success
‘ than those which were taken upon
‘ that occasion.

‘ I therefore conclude, that Citadels
‘ in general are a dangerous and
‘ uncertain means of maintaining a
‘ Prince’s own Dominions; and will
‘ always

‘ *always be an ineffectual one for the*
‘ *preserving his conquests.*

Machiavel with reason blames the *Florentines*, for thinking to subdue and keep in subjection the town of *Pisa* by means of Citadels, which had been a Republick like themselves, and even at that time might be said to be a powerful one in respect to *Florence*. We agree with him, that the *Florentines* had better have united that State to their own, or destroy'd it utterly, having the means in their power; but he is in the wrong to represent those two measures of the *Romans* as general maxims, to the entire exclusion of Citadels; and is mistaken, if he pretends to say, they never put the latter in practice; those famous and successful Politicians made use not of those three means only, but of several others, according to the time and circumstances. In the infancy of their State, when *Rome* was yet thin of inhabitants, it being more their interest to have their neighbours for allies and confederates than for subjects, in the conquests they made in *Italy*, they conducted themselves as *Machiavel* speaks of, and built no Citadels, for fear of alarming those people with apprehensions of any ill use intended to be made of them in regard to themselves: but from the time that Republick became powerful in inhabitants, and had carried its wars beyond *Italy*, they made use not only
of

of their Colonies, but of Forts and Citadels likewise, as is the practice at this day under the name of *Castra*, and afterwards under that of *Castulla*, from whence our word *Castles* is derived. * *Uranius*, saith *Tacitus*, being appointed Governor of *England*, died towards the end of the year, leaving *Suetonius Paulinus* to succeed him in his government; who in two fortunate years subdued several nations whom he kept in obedience by means of Fortresses: And afterwards, speaking of *Agricola*, he says, 'Not content with taking hostages he kept a strict hand over them by Forts and Garrisons, which he had so properly disposed, as to strike a terror into every quarter of the Kingdom; this made *Galgacus* the chief of the revolvers say, in the speech he made to his own people to animate them against the *Romans*, their Forces are exhausted, their Fortresses unprovided, their Colonies full of old men, their Towns insecure, &c. † *Mezeray* says, that before the establishment of the *French* among the *Gauls*, 'they had scarce any troops, unless in the bordering provinces, particularly an army upon the upper, and another upon the lower *Rhine*, where they built a number of castles to restrain the irruptions of the Barbarians, and to keep the people in awe on that side, who were no less muti-

* Life of *Agricola*.

† Tom. i. pag. 23.

'nously inclined than the *Germans* themselves.

The instance brought by *Machiavel* of *Charles VIII.*'s passage into *Italy* is ill placed here. *Peter de Medicis**, according to several authors, coming before the victor's army, they would not permit him to return till he had consign'd into the King's hands four towns, which were the Keys of that State; so that it is attributing to those Fortresses what was owing to the imprudence of *Peter de Medicis* only.

Of all the several methods to preserve a conquest, the most certain, the most humane, and the least expensive is that of Citadels. Weak as their garrisons may be, if they do but their duty, they may each of them keep one town in obedience. They are, in the first place out of the reach of conspiracies, or of being any ways surpriz'd on the part of the inhabitants; it is not possible for those people to rise up in arms all at once, and form themselves into a body, without the garrison of the Citadel's being appris'd of it; and the instant they are so they are sufficiently numerous to put a stop to their proceedings; for in the beginning of enterprizes of that kind people are apt to be diffident one of another, few care for taking the first step, from an apprehension of being ill seconded, or perhaps deserted by the rest of their party, in case their first measures should

* *Silken, dans son Ministre d'Etat.*

prove unsuccessful, and one single act of vigour on the part of the Citadel may effectually recall all the rest to their duty. Had *Charles of Anjou*, after the conquest of the Kingdom of *Sicily*, built Citadels there, tho' he had left no more troops in them than barely sufficient for their guard, the *Sicilians* had never dreamt of entering into that famous conspiracy known by the name of the *Sicilian Vespers*, or had they engaged in it, 'tis most certain they could never have proceeded so far as to cut the throats of eight thousand people in two hours time.*

Philip of Macedon, the father of *Perseus* held all *Greece* in subjection at a very small expence, by means of the Citadel of *Corinth*, which made him call that Town and Citadel the fetters of *Greece*; † had he chose to have made use of a standing army for the same intent, it would have required a very considerable one to have answer'd his purpose, and which could no otherwise have been maintained but by laying the people under very heavy contributions on the one part, and on the other hand he would have had reason to apprehend the inconveniences mention'd in the second article of the preceding section.

Objection VII.

Citadels will not enable a Prince to re-enter his own city which has revolted,
‘ * if

* An. 1282, *Mezeray*. † *Plutarch* life of *Aratus*.

44 The Safety, &c. of States,

* 'if any one should object to me, saith Machiavel, that Tarentum of old was recover'd out of the hands of its rebellious subjects, by means of its Citadel, and that the same thing has happen'd just now with regard to Brest. I shall answer him, that as for Tarentum, Fabius Maximus was sent thither a year afterwards with the whole army, with which he would have been sufficiently able to have retaken that city without the assistance of the Citadel, of whose aid, tho' he was willing to take the advantage, he could have fallen upon other measures with the same success in case there had been no Citadel. Nor am I indeed perfectly well satisfied how far the Citadel was serviceable in the recovering of Tarentum, since they were oblig'd to send a Consular army thither once again, under the command of the same Fabius, to assist in that work;

* Disc. Polit. book 11. chap. 24.

' and

by the means of Fortresses. 45

‘ and to make it manifest that the
‘ Romans would not have fail’d in
‘ their purpose of taking it without
‘ the Citadel, we need only remember
‘ the instance of Capua, which was
‘ effectually retaken altho’ there was
‘ no Citadel.

‘ But let us come to Brest. I say,
‘ it is an instance rarely to be seen
‘ what happen’d in that Rebellion;
‘ that at the same time the French
‘ were masters of the Citadel they
‘ should have so great an army in its
‘ neighbourhood; for Mons. De Foix,
‘ General for the King, being at Bou-
‘ logne with all his forces, and there
‘ inform’d of the loss of Brest, with-
‘ out losing one moment drew his for-
‘ ces towards that side, and having
‘ march’d thither in three days retook
‘ the town by means of the Citadel;
‘ in the mean while, in order to take
‘ this town, here is an evident neces-
‘ sity for having beside the Citadel
‘ such a General as M. De Foix,
‘ with

46 *The safety, &c. of States,*

‘ *with a French army to succour it in*
‘ *three days; so that this instance*
‘ *cannot defeat those produced to prove*
‘ *the contrary.*

This argument of *Machiavel's* is not much more just than the preceding ones.

Citadels are only built to save the great expence of maintaining such a number of troops as would be necessary to restrain the inhabitants of a very populous town within their duty, it is notorious that the ordinary garrison of a Citadel are but a trifle compared to the number of the inhabitants of the town; and when all of those inhabitants have taken arms, form'd themselves into a body, and put themselves on their defence against the Citadel; those of the latter cannot pretend to bring them to reason without a reinforcement, and that proportionable to the numbers the town contains, which may possibly amount so high, as to require an army to insure the success; the advantage of having a Citadel upon these occasions is the keeping an opening to attack the town, supposing it possible for the succours to arrive before the mutineers have time to fortify themselves, or throw up works against the Citadel, as happen'd in the insurrection of *Brest* in the year 1512, and that of *Antwerp*, 1576; or in case they have had time enough so to do, and secured themselves as effectually on that side as upon the rest, the
Citadel,

Citadel, if it commands the town as it ought to do, from the advantages of its situation, may greatly incommode the inhabitants in their defence, blocking them up close on that side, and serving to contract the lines of Circumvallation and Contravallation of the besieging army; so that 'tis with good reason affirm'd, that Citadels facilitate the measures of the Sovereign in reducing the ill-affected to obedience, and *Machiavel* improperly attributes to the army of succours, those honours which ought to have been shared betwixt them and the Citadel.

In the year 1640, when the city of *Turin* revolted against the young Duke of *Savoy*, and Madame the Regent his mother; had there either been no Citadel in it, or the revolters made themselves masters of it, Count *Harcourt* would never have been able with those few troops of his to reduce them under the obedience of their Sovereign; an infinity of examples, both ancient and modern might be produced to the same effect.

Objection VIII.

- * *When a Prince is once driven out of his Dominions, they prevent his ever returning. If, says Machiavel, you expect they should be of service to you in the recovering your lost Domi-*

* *Polit. Disc. lib. 11. cap. 24.*

nions,

' nions, you will never be able to ef-
 ' fect it, without an army to defeat
 ' that army which despoil'd you; and
 ' having such an army you may reco-
 ' ver your Dominions, even tho' you
 ' have no Citadels, and which you will
 ' accomplish with the greater ease, as
 ' you will have your own subjects at
 ' your devotion, which would not be
 ' the case had they been oppress'd by
 ' their means.

' Guirbaldo Duke d'Urbino the son
 ' of Frederic, who was a Great Gene-
 ' ral in his time, having been driven
 ' out of his Dominions by Cæsar Bor-
 ' gia, the son of Pope Alexander VI.
 ' no sooner by an unexpected accident
 ' was he restor'd, but he instantly fell
 ' to razing all the strong holds in his
 ' country, having experienc'd how pre-
 ' judicial they had been to him; for as
 ' he was belov'd of his subjects, he
 ' would have no barriers against them,
 ' and he found himself incapable of
 ' maintaining them against his enemies
 ' with-

‘ without a strong army in the field
‘ beside, to cover them from the army
‘ of the enemy, for which reason he took
‘ the resolution to destroy them.

‘ Machiavel likewise instances the
‘ behaviour of the people of the town
‘ of Bologna, who having risen in arms
‘ and made themselves masters of the
‘ Citadel which Pope Julius II. had
‘ built there, razed it forthwith.

‘ He then adds, that Nicholas
‘ de Castello, father of Vitelli, be-
‘ ing restored to his house, began im-
‘ mediately to demolish two Castles
‘ which Sixtus IV. had built there;
‘ because he saw very plainly, that the
‘ affection of his people was sufficient
‘ to maintain him in his Dominions;
‘ and that Citadels were ineffectual to
‘ that purpose.

‘ He concludes with the exam-
‘ ple of Octavius Fregosa, who in
‘ the insurrection of the Genoese a-
‘ gainst Louis XII. having put him-
‘ self at the head of the citizens, and

D

‘ made

50 *The safety, &c. of States,*

‘ made himself master of the Citadel
‘ (which the French had built there)
‘ by famine in sixteen months time,
‘ caus’d it to be razed.

‘ Any one would imagine, says he,
‘ that after what had happen’d he
‘ would have preserv’d it for a place
‘ of retreat upon occasion, but for his
‘ part, like a wise and prudent man he
‘ razed it, knowing very well that the
‘ affection of the subject is the defence
‘ of a state, not its Fortresses; and
‘ therefore not establishing his authority
‘ upon the basis of a Citadel but upon
‘ his own valour and good conduct, he
‘ preserv’d, and still preserves, the
‘ power he then acquired; and where-
‘ as a thousand foot soldiers were be-
‘ fore sufficient to have overturned the
‘ Genoese State, the enemies of Fre-
‘ gosa have attack’d him with ten
‘ thousand, and found themselves una-
‘ ble to hurt him.

‘ From this example then it mani-
‘ festly appears, that Fregosa did not
‘ hurt

Th
who
in ord
domin
them,
Th
becau
in a
and h

by the means of Fortresses. 51

‘ hurt himself by demolishing that Ci-
‘ tadel, and that the King of France
‘ did not mend his matters by building
‘ it; the meaning of which appears to
‘ be as follows; that Prince coming
‘ into Italy with an army, would have
‘ been able to have taken Genoa,
‘ notwithstanding there had been a
‘ Citadel against him, but when he
‘ could bring no army he was not
‘ able to make himself master of
‘ the town tho’ the Citadel was for
‘ him; the King therefore caus’d one to
‘ be built at a very great expence only
‘ to lose it shamefully, and Fregosa
‘ conquer’d it as gloriously and demo-
‘ lish’d it as successfully for his own
‘ affairs.

The instances cited by *Machiavel* of Princes who have caus’d their Citadels to be demolish’d in order to facilitate their re-entrance into their dominions, in case they should be driven out of them, have nothing to do in this place.

The Duke d’*Urbino* demolish’d his Fortresses because being a very weak Prince he was not in a condition of defending them all himself; and he could find no ally willing to run the

52 *The safety, &c. of States,*

hazard of giving him any assistance; of so little consideration were he and his Fortresses. Besides, this quotation of *Machiavel* is not just, if what *Guichardin* says is true, for in the first place he did not demolish all his Fortresses, he preserv'd those of *St. Leon* and of *Majuel*. Secondly, he did not demolish them immediately upon his return, but some time afterwards, when he found himself obliged to abandon his dominions the second time. 'The Duke d'*Urbino*, saith that Historian, 'tho' the people who had promised him to lay down their lives for the preservation and defence of his person besought him not to leave them, knowing very well that the dangers he had reason to apprehend from the war were much greater than any security he could depend upon in the offers and assurances of his people, judg'd it most expedient to give way to the impetuous efforts of the enemy, and return'd himself to *Venice*, after having caus'd all the Fortresses in his dominions to be demolish'd, excepting those of *St. Leon* and of *Majuel*.

There is likewise no sort of consequence to be drawn from the example of the people of the town of *Bologna*, as it was the act of Rebels, who demolish'd a Fortress which had been built in opposition to themselves, and to keep them in obedience.

Nicholas Castello, upon his return to his own country, demolish'd the two Castles which the Pope had caus'd to be built there for no other reason,

reason, but to prevent his people entertaining any jealousy that he might one day take it in his head to make use of them against themselves, and not with any view to facilitate his own re-entrance of his Dominions, in case he should be driven out of them again, as *Machiavel* would have it understood.

The instance of the *Genoese* is more against than in favour of his opinion; had that Politician liv'd some few years longer, he would have been sensible of the very great mistake committed by *Fregosa*, in causing that Citadel to be demolish'd. When fortune has declared absolutely against a Sovereign in war, if that power has any Fortress, thither he retires; from thence he may capitulate with the enemy, and obtain much better conditions than if the place of his retreat was not in a capacity of sustaining a siege. *Fregosa* having no longer a Citadel was obliged to surrender himself at discretion to the Marquis *de Pescaire*, who sent him prisoner to his own house, where he died soon after. Those who are willing to excuse him, say, that he depended upon the particular affection of the people of *Genoa*, and was apprehensive his keeping up that Fortress, might have the appearance of tyranny and usurpation in their eyes. The People's affection for their Prince can never be so great but a little caution in regard to them will always be necessary; and Sovereigns, who are really good men, ought to condemn the murmurings of the disaffected, when such a

54 *The safety, &c. of States,*

resolution is to be taken as is necessary for their own security.

In troublesome times Citadels are not only useful to the Sovereign, but often to the people themselves. *Appian* tells us, that the *Roman* army being exceedingly fatigued, *Scipio* was obliged to give fifty thousand *Carthaginians* their lives, who had refuged themselves in the Fortrefs of *Birsa*.

To what has already been said in favour of Citadels may be added, that Citadels whose towns are without other defence, may serve as places of refuge for one part of the inhabitants, and prevent the enemies making a lodgment, or fortifying themselves in the town; that after a battle lost they may stop the advances of the conqueror, give the army time to rally, to receive a reinforcement, and to march afterwards to their relief, witness the Capitol which saved *Rome* after the loss of the battle of *Allia* against the *Gauls*; by which means *Camillus* the Dictator had time to get the remains of the *Roman* army together, to wait the coming up of their allies, and came in time himself to its relief.

That when they are annexed to frontier towns that are fortified, they save the expence of maintaining a garrison in those towns in time of peace.

That when their towns are attack'd the Citadel obliges and forces the inhabitants to engage as far as possible in the defence of them.

That

That they serve as retrenchments, or places of retreat for the garrison after the town is taken, which encourages the garrison to push the defence of the town to the utmost, without fear of being at last made prisoners of war.

That Citadels, if well constructed, make the attack of their towns much more difficult, because when those fronts of the Citadel which are next the country are stronger than the works of the town, the besiegers are put to it where to begin the attack; if they attack the town first, they will afterwards be obliged to make a second siege of the Citadel, as was the case at the last siege of *Lisle* in *Flanders*; and if they begin with the Citadel, the fronts of it towards the country being stronger than the works of the town, and the besieged having it in their power to retire into it with all their forces, it may by that means make a very vigorous resistance, and give time for succours to arrive, as has been often seen at sieges, and lastly was done at that of *Turin*.

SECTION III.

Wherein is concluded the Usefulness and Necessity of Fortresses in general.

TO demonstrate beyond all possibility of doubt that Fortresses of all kinds are useful and absolutely necessary,

In the first place it cannot be disputed that Princes in general, who are without defences of this kind against domestick enemies, are every moment liable to be exposed upon the most trifling occasions to the caprice of a restless, ignorant, factious multitude, never content and ever fond of novelty.

Secondly, It is no less certain, that if a Prince is weak, and has no places of strength against foreign enemies, he will be of very little consideration, and perpetually obliged to bear patiently endless insults and encroachments offer'd him by his more powerful neighbours; whereas, if he has places of strength and defence, and with them a resolution like those of *Mirandola*, *Monaco*, *Mantua*, and several others heretofore, he will be able to make head against them, there to defend himself and make good his ground till such time as his neighbours, either jealous of the growing greatness of those who attack him, or for some other reasons of state, send him sufficient succours to deliver him from those dangers which otherwise must at last have overwhelm'd him.

It is likewise out of doubt, that Princes of a mean degree of power, such as are not able to keep armies constantly on foot, have an absolute need of Fortresses, without which they must be subject to continual fears and jealousies with regard to Princes their powerful neighbours.

And

And as to Princes in a superior degree of power, how formidable soever they may be on account of their armies, and being always in a condition to defend themselves and to punish and revenge any insults or injuries offer'd them by any other State, it is no less certain that Fortresses are extremely useful and advantageous to them, and sometimes absolutely necessary; for as their Dominions are enlarg'd their boundaries and frontiers become so too, and the expence of maintaining such an army as would be necessary to guard them against surprizes, besides other inconveniences, might be a charge too great for their revenues; they must therefore necessarily have recourse to other means for that purpose, such as Fortresses built upon their frontiers in the avenues of their Dominions, that an enemy may not have the least hopes of success in any attempt to force them till those Fortresses are first taken. *Machiavel*, the Politician who has most strongly declared against Fortresses, acknowledges, * ' that a Prince, even tho' he had good armies might nevertheless find his advantage in having places of strength upon the skirts and frontiers of his Dominions, as he would by their means be enabled to sustain the enemy for some time, till all his forces were ready.' And a Prince, tho' he have no neighbouring State of equal power with himself, ought to be no

* Polit. Disc. book 2. chap. 24.

58 *The safety, &c. of States,*

less watchful over the security of his frontiers; because several inferior Powers united in a Confederacy against him may be equally capable of hurting him; they may at the same time either severally attack him in different places, or all together surround his Dominions on all sides, and after making themselves masters of them, seize his person, or force him to abandon them; and immediately building Fortresses in the most advantageous and convenient places, and furnishing them with all things necessary for their defence, put him out of any capacity of re-entering or recovering his Dominions; at least force him into terms as little for his honour as his advantage.

If in regard to Princes we make another distinction, *viz.* of such as become so either by Succession, by Election, or by Power, that is to say, Conquest or Usurpation; it is certain that the former, whether of a low, mean, or high degree of power, cannot dispense with the want of Fortresses, as we have manifested already. That the second ought not to be entirely without them. And, in regard to Princes of the third degree, they are absolutely necessary.

Sovereigns in all ages, more or less, have made use of Fortresses. The *Greeks*, the *Romans*, the *Carthaginians*, had them; and, at present, there is not a Prince in *Europe*, either in a low, mean, or high degree of power, that is without them. The Pope, the Emperor,
the

the King of *France*, the King of *Spain*, the King of *Portugal*, the King of *Sweden*, the King of *Denmark*, the States of *Holland*, the Seignory of *Venice*, and all the Princes of *Italy* have them, and are every day building new ones, according to the variable exigencies of their several States; even the Republick of *Poland*, who from the great natural strength of her armies, should seem least to want them, hath Fortresses, two of which are esteem'd impregnable; the first is that of *Witepski* in *Lithuania*, for her defence against the *Muscovites*; the other that of *Caminieckz* in *Podolia*, against the *Turks*.

We shall conclude this chapter with saying thus much, and with great justice, in favour of Fortresses; that they are bucklers against a foreign enemy; bitts and bridles for a turbulent, seditious, or a conquer'd people; the security and preservation of Provinces, the maintenance of States, the safety of Kingdoms and of Empires; the effectual means of procuring tranquility to the publick, by insuring the power of the governors and the obedience of the govern'd; good order within, strength without; that they are the characteristicks of sovereign authority, and that good policy directed Sovereigns to the use of them for the preservation of their docks and shipping; lastly, that they are the sheet anchors of a State, which when the waves run ihghest, secure it from shipwreck.

C H A P. II.

Of the number of Fortresses necessary in a State.

ALTHO' we have made it evident that Fortresses are greatly advantageous, it doth not from thence follow that the greater number a State hath of them, the stronger it will become, or the difficulty of attacking it proportionably encreas'd. If some States have been lost thro' the entire want of them, others have suffer'd greatly by having too many. *Italy* of old had never been ravaged by the *Goths* and others but for want of a certain number of places well fortified; and History attributes one part of those misfortunes which *France* underwent towards the middle of the fourteenth Century, to the great number of them at that time in the Kingdom. There was a Fortress almost at every land's end, the whole face of the country was cover'd with castles and strong-holds; not only the cities but the market towns, and even little villages were fortified. **Mezeray* tells us in his abridgment of the history of *France*, that in those calamitous times the smallest towns were fortified in such a manner, as to stop the course of great armies; even

* Anno 1556.

villages wall'd themselves up against the incursions of maroders; and that infinite number of castles serv'd only to prolong the war, and to devour the people by the robbers who lurk'd in those holes.

The building and maintaining too great a number of Fortresses consumes and devours the whole revenues of a State; in war they embezzle the means of sending good armies into the field, by the vast expence requir'd to provide them with every thing necessary for their defence; and which if not done, the enemy attacks them and turns them against the Sovereign who built them. The great Prince of *Conde* one day asking Marshal *Turenne* what measures he propos'd to take in the war in *Flanders*, the latter after acquainting him with his sentiments, which were to engage the enemy frequently in battle, added, ' that if the King of *Spain* had employ'd that treasure in ' raising and maintaining armies which he had ' expended in besieging and fortifying towns, ' he would have been that day the greatest King ' in Christendom.

As the situation, extent, power and interest of a State can alone determine what number of Fortresses may be necessary against its foreign enemies, so the form and date of its government, the different sects in religion, and the natural bent of the people, must regulate the number of them in regard to domestick ones.

SECTION I.

Of the number of Fortresses necessary for the defence of a State against Foreign Enemies, according to its Situation.

THE Author of Nature not having thought proper to make the earth all of an even and equal surface, as he might if he pleas'd have done, but divided and disposed of it into exceeding high mountains cleft and steep, into lesser hills and vallies, into morasses, rivers, lakes and seas, into wide spreading forests and sandy plains barren and desert; seems in this disposition to have had provisional regard both to the health and well-being of mankind its inhabitants, and to have given some countries natural fortifications; for those lofty and steep mountains what are they but high strong walls which separate different nations, protecting them reciprocally from being attack'd by each other, and affording them the means of living in safety and tranquility within their several boundaries; whilst the vallies there may be consider'd as so many channels of communication left for the sake of commerce. Great morasses and large rivers separate Kingdoms, and secure them from each other's sudden attacks, in the same manner as wide lakes and wider seas; and those rivers, lakes and seas besides

contri-

contributing to the security of the people, as they afford the means of intercourse betwixt them, contribute likewise to their profit; wide forests and vast sandy plains may be consider'd as party-walls betwixt two great nations at war, to prevent their incursions into each other's dominions.

On the other hand the great Architect of the Universe seems to have left to their own defence the inhabitants of the open plains, such as are liable to be every where travers'd and over-run, affording no obstacle to the invader, and whose easy entrance and abundant fertility seem to invite their neighbours to come and partake of those gifts of nature, maugre the will of the possessors. After these reflections made it is easily to be seen, that all the various kinds of situations of States may be reduced into these three principal ones, that is to say, the strong, the weak, and mean or mixt situations.

First then a State may be said to have a strong situation, when the whole country is full of high mountains, where a small body of men may oppose a great army every step it advances; such is the country of the *Suisse*, who would find impregnable retrenchments amongst their mountains, if they came to be attack'd.

Secondly, When the country is all a morass, intersected with rivers and canals, which are natural fortifications capable of obstructing and rendering abortive the efforts of the most powerful enemy; of this kind is almost the whole country

64 *The Safety, &c. of States,*

country of the States of the United Provinces. These two situations of mountains and of morafs are of all others the most advantageous, and one may with great justice affirm, have contributed as much to the establishment of those two famous Republicks, as the natural strength and courage of the inhabitants.

Thirdly, When the whole country, except only the parts inhabited and their environs, is one continued forest, or uncultivated wild, such is not the situation of any State in *Europe*, of any degree.

Fourthly, The situation of a State is strong when one part of the country is high inaccessible mountains, and the other morafs, rivers, great lakes, and forest; such is the situation of *Norway*, of *Russia*, and of *Great Tartary*.

Fifthly, The situation may be said to be strong, when tho' the heart of the country be an even plain, the frontiers are of difficult access; which sometimes happens.

As first, when there is no approaching it but thro' narrow mountain-passes, such as are naturally fortified and easily maintain'd and defended; there are no large dominions, and very few smaller ones which have frontiers of this kind on all sides, but many that have them on one side or other of them; such were the straits of *Hermopylæ*, which form'd the pass betwixt *Thessaly* and *Greece*, where *Leonidas* took his stand with 4000 men, when *Xerxes* came with an innumerable army to conquer it.

Such

Such were of old the three entrance-passes into *Cilicia*, through one of which *Alexander* made his whole army pass, and after contemplating the situation of those parts, 'tis said,* never was so amaz'd at his own good fortune as at that time, acknowledging that he might easily have been defeated, even by showers of stones; for besides that it was such a defile as four armed men could scarce pass a-breast, the upper part of the mountain overhung the path below, which was narrow and broken in many places by the fall of torrents from the mountains. Of this kind likewise are some parts of the *Pyrennees*, which separate *France* and *Spain*; and almost all the *Alps*, which separate the former from *Italy*.

Secondly, When such a State is surrounded by the sea, and 'tis exceeding difficult making a descent, being all a dangerous coast, no good roads or harbours, a great number of shelves and sand-banks, and violent winds ordinarily blowing in those parts. Such is *England*, which being sever'd by the ocean from all other countries, is in no danger from any projects her enemies may form against her; in effect, we do not see in history any but the *Romans* and *Saxons* that could ever make a settlement there; and we have not for these many ages known any enterprizes against the *English* prove fortunate either to *France* or *Spain*.

* *Quint. Curt.* book 3.

66 *The safety, &c. of States,*

In the reign of *Charles VI.* * the Council of *France* resolv'd to attack them, not only in *Guienne* but in their own island; for which purpose the most formidable preparations were made both of men, shipping, and war-like machines that had ever been known; we bought, we hired all the ships we could lay our hands on between the ports of *Sweden* and *Flanders*, a City was built of wood in such a manner as to be taken in pieces and put together again, intended to cover the troops on their first landing; the King himself went to *Sluys* harbour to view his armament, which consisted of nine hundred ships, and the whole being well appointed, had a most promising aspect of success. All that vast numerous army did nothing, part of them perish'd at sea, the rest came back again to *France*.

* *Francis I.* finding himself unable to recover *Boulogne* from the *English* either by force or treaty, thought the most probable means of doing it would be to attack them in their own island. He order'd his galleys round by sea from *Marjeilles* to the mouth of the *Seine*, he sent for ten huge ships from *Genoa*, and order'd all those in his own ports, which were fit for service, to be got ready: Of this armament Admiral *Annebaut* had the command, who sail'd in quest of the *English* army on their own coasts, and first seiz'd upon the Isle

* *Mezeray*, 1545.

of *Wight*. The *English* after some skirmish-
ings retired into a place which had but one
entrance, and was encompass'd with rocks
and shelves all around, lying betwixt that
island and *Portsmouth*; it was neither thought
proper to fortify the Isle of *Wight*, nor to at-
tack them in a post so advantageous, but to
make a descent upon their coasts; this was
done in three or four different places, and
great outcries made at the same time, till the
Admiral at last finding all was to no purpose,
that the enemy would not appear, and his
own provisions were consumed, put his helms
about and steer'd for *France*.

In the year 1588 *Philip II.* King of *Spain*,
sent forth a most formidable naval armament,
which he had equipp'd to conquer *England*; the
Spaniards were seven whole years at work upon
it, says *Mezeray*, and every year's labour cost
above a million of gold; that vast Armada,
after being toss'd and buffeted, and dispers'd on
all sides, first by a continual tempest, and after-
wards by the *English* and *Dutch*, and after
losing near ten thousand men and above sixty
ships, made a shift with the utmost difficulty,
in a most forlorn and tatter'd condition to get
into the harbours of *Spain* again. This was
the finest Fleet the Kings of *Spain* had ever
put to sea.

These three instances are sufficient to show
the strength of a great State encompass'd by
the sea, and that such have more to fear from

68 *The safety, &c. of States,*

their domestick than foreign enemies; the latter of which can hardly ever hope to succeed in any attempts upon them, without the concurrence and assistance of the former.

Thirdly, The Frontiers of a State are difficult of access when it is surrounded on all sides by rivers extremely wide and rapid, or by great lakes, or large and deep morasses.

Fourthly, When it is bounded either by forests of a great extent, or by vast deserts dry and barren; this kind of situation and the preceding one are very rare, there being none such in *Europe*.

Fifthly, When a State is barr'd by high steep mountains on one side, and surrounded by the sea on all the rest, as ancient *Greece* was, and as *Spain* and *Italy* are at present.

Sixthly, When a State has for its Frontiers, on one side, exceeding lofty and steep mountains, like the *Alps* and *Pyrennees*; some of its other parts bounded by the sea, and on the rest a great river: Such would be the situation of *France* if it had the *Rhine* for its boundary on the side of *Germany* and *Holland*.

Lastly, The frontiers of a State are difficult of access whether consisting entirely of one of those kinds of countries we have already described as difficult to be traversed, in regard to the small numbers required to oppose the traversers, or where several of those kinds are intermingled one with the other; which is to be met with in some States.

The

The advantages are very great of strong situations, being a kind of natural fortifications, built without trouble or expence, of proof against the insults of an enemy, or the injuries of time itself. Amongst the several causes assign'd by *Strabo* for the growing greatness of the *Roman* Empire, he gives the first place to the following one; that it was easy for the *Romans* to be always in a capacity of repelling the attacks of their enemies, as *Italy* having almost the form of an island was every where surrounded by the sea excepting that part only where it join'd the Continent; which was but of a small extent, and that barricaded by the *Alps*, lofty and inaccessible mountains, which serv'd it for ramparts and walls, and other artificial fortifications.

A very few Fortresses are sufficient where States are situate in the manner we are now speaking of, but some will always be necessary, because * they who confiding too much in those natural advantages have lull'd themselves asleep, and neglected other defences, have found themselves deceiv'd and ruin'd by the very means they imagin'd themselves secured. Mountain-passes, how difficult soever, may be surpriz'd or forc'd; the making a descent upon an island is far from an impracticable thing; rivers, lakes and morasses may all be pass'd, if not of a very great extent, under fa-

* *Rohan parfait* Cap. chap. 19.

your of a numerous artillery; the thickest woods and forests, and widest deserts may be croisd. The number of Fortresses necessary must be determin'd by the number of Passes easy or practicable.

A State is of a weak and disadvantageous situation, when it has open plains on all sides, and no considerable rivers either to bound or intersect them, or other difficult passes. States so situated require a great many Fortresses for their security and defence; if they are of a large extent, and their Sovereign a powerful Prince, a double chain of them at least will be necessary to secure their frontiers; that if he should happen to receive a check in attempting to succour any of the first line, those of the second may stop the victorious and give the vanquish'd time to form a second army. The second chain ought not to be above eight or ten leagues behind the first, and the places of the first not above six or seven leagues at most distant from one another, as those of the second should be; and the latter opposite to the center of the foremost intervals, or as near it as possible; that in case the enemy should attempt to penetrate without attacking any of the first chain, those of the second by such disposition may prevent his drawing any subsistence for his army from the country about them.

This rule for the proper disposition of Fortresses on the frontiers of an open State has one exception. If there is any where a river or navigable

viga
may
my
plac
hav
fide
the
plac
a gr
fort
wha
tho
ries
gre
tak
Sta
pla
and
tain
lak
gre
tion
var
Th
fide
situ
are
wh

vigable canal, by means of which the enemy may bring all sorts of necessaries for their army's subsistence, while he is attacking the places on the frontier, or even after he shall have penetrated into the country: 'Tis on the side of this river or canal where the fortress of the first and second line must absolutely be placed, even tho' it should occasion the leaving a greater distance betwixt themselves and the fortress upon the right and left of them, than what we have just now prescribed; because those rivers and canals affording easy opportunities of transporting provisions and ammunition, greatly contribute to the success of all undertakings in war.

We call that a mean or mixt situation of a State, some parts of whose frontiers are open plains without any obstacle to the passing them, and whose other parts are barr'd by steep mountains, or enclosed by the sea, or great rivers, lakes, or morasses, or by woods or forests of a great extent; these are the most ordinary situations of States, nature having been pleas'd to vary the several parts of the surface of the earth. The number of Fortresses necessary on each side of the frontiers must depend upon their situation; that is to say, where the approaches are naturally difficult a few may be sufficient; where they are easy, many will be wanting.

SECTION II.

Of the number of Fortresses necessary for the defence of a State against foreign Enemies, according to the extent and power of the State.

Dominions of the greatest extent, and whose Sovereigns are powerful in the highest degree, such as the *Roman* Empire was of old, and that of the *Turks* is at this day, in the judgment of some Politicians require but a few Fortresses; because as they can afford to keep great armies on foot, they may preserve their Country by only keeping the field.

This way of thinking is not so much the result of just reflection as of prejudice in favour of the example of the *Romans*, who as historians tell us had but a few Fortresses, and of the *Turks* who have not many, and those only in the passes of greatest importance; if we examine this point with attention and without prejudice, we shall find, at least in my way of thinking, that it would be much more for the advantage of the several States to regulate the number of their Fortresses according to the circumstances of their own situation.

Had *Darius*, whom we may place in the list of the most powerful Princes ever known, whether we consider his riches or the extent
and

and fertility of his Dominions, had more than one chain of good Fortresses to oppose the first heat and impetuous violence of *Alexander*, the latter might perhaps have seen his whole army destroy'd as well as the new levies he sent for out of his own Kingdom, before he had been able by forcing the last chain to open himself a passage into the heart of his adversary's dominions. The advantage gained over an enemy by the taking one of his towns is a limited victory, while other towns are still behind; whereas that of a battle fought and won on the shorne ground, if compleat, has no bounds while the conqueror knows but how to avail himself of his advantage; and if he is active, vigilant, and enterprizing, as historians paint *Alexander*, 'tis certain the vanquish'd will scarce have time to recover his first astonishment, to look about him and make the best use of the resources which may be still left him. The loss of a battle has a different effect on the spirits of the people from the loss of a town, when they know there are more behind to stop the enemy; in the latter misfortune the alarm is not general, it reaches no farther than that part of the frontier attack'd, and serves only to awaken the zeal of the affectionate part of the subjects to assist their Sovereign; the ill-affected durst not show their heads on such an occasion; but after a battle lost upon an open frontier, the terror spreads and reaches the most distant, staggers the constancy

74 *The safety, &c. of States,*

stancy of the best affected, and persuades the malecontents then is their time to declare.

As to Dominions of a great extent and power, such as the Empire, *France, Spain, &c.* there is no doubt to be made but the number of their Fortresses ought to be determin'd by their situation; that is to say, by the quality of the country which composes the several parts of their frontiers.

States in a mean degree of extent and power ought to regulate the number of their Fortresses after such a manner, that the troops they are able to raise and maintain in case of a war, may be sufficient to guard and garrison their towns and defences, and at the same time form a body of an army to keep the field; both these purposes must be provided for, in order to defend such a State, because * 'an army where there are no Fortresses durst hazard nothing, but must shut themselves up in their camp, leaving to the enemy the foraging of the country, and means of subsisting at your expence, and at last to your ruin: On the other hand, Fortresses where there is no army can protect you no longer than till the magazines of forage you have laid up there are consumed; but when proper regard has been had to both these particulars, such a State is capable of making a great resistance.

* *Rohan parf. Cap.*

! 'Tis

‘ ’Tis equally dangerous for a State to have
‘ more Fortresses than it can maintain, and to
‘ have none at all; of the two I should chuse
‘ the latter, because in risking a battle you
‘ make the enemy partake of the danger, where-
‘ as the other way you are sure to be undone,
‘ without other hope than that of protracting
‘ your ruin; for the desire of preserving all
‘ your Fortresses by putting strong garrisons
‘ into them, deprives you of the means of keep-
‘ ing an army in the field, till after losing two
‘ or three harvests by pillage, you are obliged
‘ to take it tho’ with a halter about your neck.
‘ I know there are some of a contrary opinion,
‘ who go upon this maxim, that when all the
‘ principal places of a State are fortified, the
‘ whole forage and provision of the country
‘ may there be laid up; where if an army of
‘ the enemy comes, and continues any time
‘ they must starve; if they only march thro’,
‘ the damage they do cannot be great, so that
‘ tis almost impossible for them to underrake
‘ any considerable siege.’ To this I answer,
that the chief intent of Fortresses is the defence
of the weaker side, to enable a few to resist a
superior number, that if you have such a num-
ber of them, and sufficient garrisons for them
and all your large fortified towns besides, you
must have a greater number of troops than
your enemy can bring against you, supposing, I
say, each of them sufficiently garrison’d to main-
tain a siege; and if you are stronger than your
enemy,

26 *The safety, &c. of States,*

enemy, of what use are your Fortresses, when you may preserve your country by only keeping the field? From all which I draw this conclusion, that the number of your Fortresses should be limited, and so few as to be no obstacle to your keeping the field.

Many Generals of armies have preserv'd their country when invaded by pursuing this maxim, and others lost theirs by the neglect of it. When *Piedmont* was attack'd the Prince of *Melphe*, General of the *French* army, not having a sufficient number of troops to garrison all his Fortresses, and keep an army in the field besides, caus'd all the forts and fortified places of least importance, which lay round those principal ones he thought himself in a condition of maintaining, to be demolish'd; and that wise conduct proved the means of saving and preserving the State. On the other hand, in the war of *Sienna* the *French* Generals, from a desire of maintaining too great a number of forts and castles, were at last obliged to abandon the *Tuscan*; their forces being so reduced and weakened, as to be no longer in a condition either of affording them succours, or of attempting to recover them; and the least of those forts when lost assisted the enemy in the conquest of the more important. In the year 1673 *Louis XIV.* tho' the most powerful Prince in *Europe*, abandon'd the greatest part of his conquests in *Holland*, withdrawing his garrisons from thence in order to augment his army.

Weak

by the means of Fortresses. 77

Weak States, in the judgment of all Politicians, ought not to have more than one or two Fortresses, but those exceeding well fortified, and furnish'd with provisions, arms, men, and warlike stores, as well as a sufficient quantity of money; that they may be enabled by making a long defence to give time for those to come to your assistance who would not willingly see the aggrandisement of that power which attacks you: * For without you have some means of resistance, your country must be lost before any can have time to come to your relief; and besides that the facility with which you are to be conquer'd may tempt the enemy to invade, you will find your allies better disposed to succour you while you are in possession of your dominions, than to assist you in the recovering them when lost; as one is easy with an equal force, the other extremely difficult, without a great superiority: To which I shall add, that the danger is oftentimes as great of your auxiliary retaining those dominions to himself, as of their being conquer'd by the enemy; or if he restores them, it may be upon such hard conditions, that little more than the shadow of Sovereignty may be left the possessor. Happy are those Princes who meet with such disinterested and generous allies, as to re-establish them in their own lost dominions, in the

* *Parf. Cap. chap. 19.*

78 *The safety, &c. of States,*

same power and independency they before possess'd, for the examples are but few.

When a State weak in itself is of difficult access, as when guarded by some mountain-pass, or by some great river, lake, or morass, passable only in one or two places, and where a few small forts may dispute the passage, and perhaps hope to repel the enemy; as the charge of their construction and maintenance cannot be very great, and they require a very few to guard and defend them, it would be extremely proper for the security of such States to build a fort at each of those passes.

If such a State were surrounded by the sea, that is to say, were an Island like *Malta*, and had few places where a descent could possibly be made, and even there to be opposed with great advantage on the part of the inhabitants, of whom there was a sufficient number for that purpose; and in case they should be overpowered at last, an assured retreat into their Fortress, without danger of being cut off; it would be extremely proper to build small forts or redoubts, and batteries enclosed on all sides at each of those places, under the protection of whose fires they might effectually oppose the enemy's passage and descent, and oblige them to begin their attempt by making themselves masters of those forts.

The descent in that case would be extremely difficult to effect, as the resistance made by those works would give time for the whole island

island
comp
tance
be al
lande
T
171
grea
kind
Mal
possi
W
conc
adva
mea
bein
the
ener
you
Fort
in th
the
the
the
you
Sta
C
gag
a pl
tion
whe
rily

island to rendezvous before the enemy could be compleatly debark'd; and who with the assistance of the forts, &c. before-mention'd, would be able to engage with advantage those already landed, whatever their numbers might be.

These were the reasons which in the year 1715 determined the Prince of Vendosme, then great Prior of *France*, to order works of this kind to be built on the coasts of the Isle of *Malta*, in those places wherever there was a possibility for a descent to succeed.

Where the circumstances above-mention'd concur, no sort of inconvenience but infinite advantages must ensue from the pursuit of such measures: The worst that can happen is the being overpower'd in your endeavours to oppose the descent; in which case it not being in the enemies power (as we have suppos'd) to cut off your retreat, you have only to retire into your Fortress, and from thence to make your defence in the same manner as if you had there expected the first coming of the enemy. If you have the good fortune to repulse them, you prevent the ravaging of your country, the besieging of your towns, and perhaps the loss of your whole State.

Give me leave to observe here, that the engaging in opposition to a descent, by means of a place well fortified, is not an indifferent action like that of defending one'sself in a town where one happens to be shut up, but necessarily presupposes something more than an ordinary

nary degree of valour, which cannot but in some measure strike an awe into the assailants, as well as greatly raise the spirits of your own people; not to mention that descents have always been look'd upon as the most difficult of all warlike enterprizes, and of the most doubtful success; the making the necessary dispositions for them is so tedious a work, and after a great deal of time spent when you are just upon the point of coming to action, sometimes a gale of wind arises, which instead of favouring your purpose, obliges you at once to cast about for your own preservation, to avoid being wreck'd on that coast you were just before preparing to invade.

The Generals of the expedition can have no knowledge of the ground where the descent is to be made, but from the report of such countrymen as are in the army; and it very rarely happens, that people quite ignorant in affairs of that kind can give sufficient lights for forming a judgment of the right spot where the descent ought to be made; we know that for a little money they will affirm what they never saw; that there is no such thing as depending on them, and sometimes the least change of circumstance, or starting of an unexpected obstacle throws a damp upon the whole, and the design is dropt on the very brink of success; the difficulty of making a retreat is a check on the soldier's valour, and in the time of making the descent, if the least party of the enemy appear
they

the
kee
at t
pos
non
wh
the
can
ther
ther
wh
their
I
wer
end
redu
sma
peop
cap
any
been
fleet
dispo
rishi
pass
acti
to r
legs
the
info
barr
they

they grow quite dishearten'd. The boats should keep close to one another, in order to land all at the same time, in which disposition 'tis impossible but many must be broken by the cannon firing upon them from just at hand; and wherever this happens, 'tis so many men lost to the combat, for as every boat is as full as it can hold, none can take them in; all the chance therefore left them for their lives is quitting their arms to endeavour to swim a-shore, in which case those who are any ways disabled by their wounds must perish in the water.

I have heard it said by several officers who were in the expedition made in that war which ended with the treaty of *Ryswick* in 1697, to reduce to their obedience the inhabitants of a small Island who had revolted; that had those people instead of shutting themselves up in their capital, offer'd to have oppos'd the descent in any show of resistance, the former would have been hard put to it to have forc'd them; the fleet having met with a storm at sea which had dispers'd their ships, of which several had perish'd. The soldiers were so fatigu'd with their passage, that they were almost incapable of acting, they were so harass'd and so weak as to require some time ashore to set them on their legs again; those who had undertaken to be the guides were quite out of their knowledge, insomuch they might have been extremely embarrass'd in making their disposition, but that they found the Islanders had forsaken the coast.

82 *The safety, &c. of States,*

'Tis quite otherwise with those on the defensive; when the enemy is come and the descent is to be opposed, themselves know the strong and weak parts of their coast, and make their own disposition accordingly; wherever the appearance of the enemy seems to point their design, while they are preparing for that purpose, the former have time to fortify the part in danger, to march all their troops thither, and in drawing them up to take the best advantage of the ground: If it was a feint only of the enemy, who after showing himself off the coast sail'd away to some other part of the Island, the Islanders may instantly be advertis'd of it by signals, and reach the place of his intended attempt as soon as himself; or should they come something later, the entire debarkment of an enemies troops, in opposition to the fire of such forts as we have mention'd, is a work of so long a time that the number as yet landed must needs be very inferior to the whole body of the Islanders assembled and united on such an occasion.

If the having too great a number of Fortresses is ever inconvenient, 'tis particularly so in the case we are now speaking of; for instance, supposing we should increase the number of those built by Monf. the Prince of *Vendosme's* order on the coasts of the Isle of *Malta*, instead of obstructing any descent they would greatly contribute to its success; for at the time of an invasion those small Fortresses must

none

none of them be without their garrisons, by which means the greater number there is of them, the weaker will become your *Corps de reserve*, on which corps is your chief dependance for repelling the invaders; and if you neglect succouring those forts, and leave them to their own defence, they must soon fall into the enemy's hands: They are strictly speaking no other than *Corps de Gardes*, with a retrenchment around them, to enable those within to make a stand against invaders, to find them employment, and obstruct their debarking, till the *Corps de reserve* have time to come up; 'tis therefore fit their dimensions be proportion'd to the strength of such garrisons as can be afforded them, if the Island should be attack'd; in which case, the making them too large would be a useless expence.

When an Island is of a very small extent, has few places where a descent can be commodiously made, and the remaining parts of the coast easily made inaccessible; when all the materials necessary for fortifying those parts where there is a possibility of an enemy's making a descent and penetrating, are to be found upon the spot; in such a case it seems rather advisable, for the reasons already given, to endeavour to fortify the whole coast, and make as I may say, one large fortification of the whole Island than several, or as usual, one in every part of it; for a single line thrown up is a sufficient defence against a descent, tho' not capable

84. *The safety, &c. of States,*

of any great resistance against a land-attack, unless accompanied with bastions, ravelins, counter-guards, ditches, cover'd ways, and several outworks not to be made without a very great expence. So that when an Island is small, and partly inaccessible, as we have suppos'd, the charge will certainly be less to throw up a line before the accessible parts, than to make such Fortresses there as may contain all the inhabitants of the Island.

Had this course been taken at first with *Malta*, I am persuaded such a line would have been attended with less expence than the several fortifications of that place have been.

SECTION III.

Of the number of Fortresses necessary according to the Interest of the State.

THE Interest of the State is likewise to be consider'd, in order to determine what number of Fortresses may be necessary on each side of its frontier.

When a State has any pretensions upon another State its neighbour, 'tis a sufficient reason for the latter to spare no expence in fortifying that part of his frontier adjoining to his neighbour's territories, by building as many Fortresses as may be effectual for his security and defence.

If

If any part of a Sovereign's frontier lies extremely convenient for one of his neighbours, 'tis another reason equally strong for declining no expence necessary to put it in a condition of defence, by making a sufficient number of strong holds there; for amongst Princes sometimes the claim of convenience is look'd upon as just as that of succession.

When two neighbouring States have no kind of pretensions one upon the other, and that it is equally the interest of either that the power of both be preserv'd and maintain'd within its proper limits, the constructing a great number of very strong places on their frontiers would be a fruitless expence on both sides.

This is the case betwixt the *French* nation and those of *Switzerland*; if the latter are a people jealous of their liberty they cannot be so of *France*, who has not the least pretension to the Cantons, and who is even concern'd in interest that their government should not be chang'd, nor any attempt form'd against their liberties by any person whatsoever, to preserve that Republick for her impregnable Barrier on that side: Besides, if *France* were even able to conquer them, and reduce them to her own subjection, she must falsify her own interest so to do; as she could no longer put any confidence in the people of that nation, who now come most ready volunteers into her service; and she must besides make use of her whole force to preserve her conquest of those barren

mountains, from whence she could eternally hope to reap no other fruit than the bare honour of their dominion; and that very dearly purchased.

On the other hand, *France* can have nothing to apprehend from *Switzerland*, who is equally concern'd in interest to support the *French* monarchy against all her enemies, that her present power may continue, and she always in a capacity of paying well for the troops furnish'd her by that country, as well as themselves receive succours from her in case of any attempt made upon their own government. Indeed, if *France* and the Empire should ever happen to be in the same interest, the case would be much alter'd.

SECTION IV.

Of the number of Fortresses necessary in regard to the Domestick Enemies of a State, according to its form of Government.

ONE of the greatest misfortunes which can happen to a State, is the falling under the power of its neighbour, or changing its own form of government; Fortresses, as we have made it evident, are one of the principal means of preventing either: In the three foregoing

going Sections we have shew'd what number of them are necessary for remedying the first of these evils ; we now proceed to shew in this and the following Sections, what number of them may be requisite to prevent the second.

Politicians make six forms of government, three simple and three compounded.

The three simple are Monarchy, as *France*, *Spain*, &c. Aristocracy, as *Venice*, *Genoa*, and some of the *Swisse* Cantons ; and Democracy, as *Athens* of old, before and after the tyranny of *Pisistrates*, and the Cantons of *Basil*, *Ury*, &c.

The three compounded forms of government are Aristo-monarchy, as *Poland* ; Aristodemocracy, as *Rome* was formerly after the establishment of the Tribunes, and the Cantons of *Zurich* and *Schaffhause* ; and Monaristo-democracy, as *Great-Britain* and *Sweden* ; which latter upon the death of *Charles XII.* resumed their ancient form of government, very much as they pretend to their advantage.

Of these six kinds of government Monarchy and Aristocracy have occasion for the greatest number of Citadels. The extraordinary expences of a Kingdom are very great, especially in time of war ; to provide funds for those occasions a King often finds himself under a necessity of encreasing his taxes, which is never done without some murmurings against the government : Besides, the Prince having the nomination to all posts either of trust or dignity, and the distribution of all favours, it is impos-

sible, let him govern as he pleases, but he must make some malecontents; amongst those who happen not to partake of them, there is not one who doth not think himself injur'd, from an opinion of his own merit, the common weakness of mankind; these kind of people desire nothing so much as a disturbance in the State, hoping under such circumstances to have an opportunity of revenging themselves for their imaginary wrongs; of these the most ambitious and profligate have scarce patience to expect the occasion, but hasten and promote it by all means in their power, by slandering, calumniating and abusing the government, in order to irritate and exasperate the minds of the people against it, till at last if not restrain'd by fear they break into open rebellion.

This evil is still more to be apprehended in an Aristocratical government, because, besides the inconveniencies above-mention'd, it is exposed to the attempts of a people excluded all places of trust, who must either be gratified in their demands, or restrain'd by force, witness all the disorders which happen'd in *Rome* before the establishment of the Tribunes.

In these two kinds of government there is a necessity for having a Citadel, Fort, or Castle in their several Capitals, and in all their large open towns, and sometimes more than one, according to the extent of those places: In large fortified towns Citadels are absolutely necessary, for without them their fortifications only put it

in

in the people's heads to revolt, finding themselves ready prepar'd to stand upon their own defence.

But above all, fortified maritime towns have the greatest need of Citadels, the ease with which they may be succour'd by an enemy, frequently tempts them to revolt; and being besides usually full of strangers, who resort thither on account of commerce, they are more easily to be surpris'd than other towns, and may at last serve to let an enemy into the Kingdom.

As to Democratical States, where the equality of the subject and every one's expectation of obtaining employments in their turn, may reasonably preserve all in union and amity, they have no occasion for Citadels; 'twould be a kind of violation of their natural rights to make them, and might very well beget a jealousy that those who had the reins of government in their hands, had form'd some design upon the others liberties: The strength of such States principally consists in the harmony amongst the several members that compose it; and so evident a mark given of distrust and diffidence in one of the parties, would be the destruction of that good intelligence.

The case is the same in Aristo-democratical States, where the Nobles and the People having each their share in the government, the building Fortresses might create a fear in the latter, lest the grandees should make use of them to the dispossessing the others of their authority.

All Republicks whatsoever have need of greater precautions against those who have no share in the government, than a King has occasion for in regard to his people; therefore, if these two kinds of States we are now speaking of should have many large cities in their subjection, there is a necessity for their having Citadels to keep the inhabitants to their duty.

This was the practice of the *Athenians*, who had Citadels in all their great towns; and the *Romans* follow'd the same maxim, as already has been said.

In Aristo-monarchical States, if the Kingdom is hereditary, the Capitals must have a Citadel, and all the rest of the great towns whether open or fortified; but if the Kingdom is elective, all Politicians agree, there ought to be very few, if any, least the King should make use of them as instruments for changing the course of succession, by making the King-ship hereditary in his own family. In the greatest cities in *Poland* we see no other Castles than such as are furrounded with a wall only, after the antient manner.

Politicians are likewise against the use of Citadels in a Monaristo-democratical State, because the King, Nobles, and People having each their proper department in the publick authority, and each of these Powers having an eye one upon the other, Citadels might be prejudicial to that confidence which the People ought to maintain both in regard to the Nobles and their Sovereign.

In

In these last States, in Democracies and Aristocracies, it is indisputably certain, that in regard to their form of government they ought to have no Citadels; and that they are directly opposite to the nature of their establishment, nevertheless such circumstances may concur as to make them absolutely necessary; which shall be shown in the following Section.

SECTION V.

Of the number of Fortresses that may be necessary, according to the date of the establish'd Government between Sovereign and People; their different opinions in Religion, the natural disposition of the people, and their zeal for the Sovereign and the State.

IN order to determine what number of Fortresses may be necessary in a State, the date of the present establishment betwixt the Sovereign and People, their different sects in Religion, the natural disposition of the people, and their zeal for the State and Sovereign, are much more to be consider'd than the form of government itself.

If that form of government is a recent one, the same in all respects as at first and in high esteem

esteem with the people; the newness of its date is a sufficient reason for building a Citadel in its Capital, and great towns. Men are naturally fickle and inconstant; no sooner have they obtain'd what they earnestly desired, but they grow disgusted again, and regret the exchange from their former condition. When *Rome* had expell'd *Tarquin*, he was scarce out of the city before they wanted to recall him. When the Aristocratical was chang'd to an Aristo-democratical form of government, many were found to whom the new form was displeasing, and the Aristo-democracy being supplanted by the Monarchical State, an infinite number of conspiracies were set on foot to restore the former government; the same thing happens in all revolutions of States.

In Monarchical States, if the Sovereignty is but newly acquired, that is reason sufficient for increasing the number of Citadels; or if any part of the people are but lately become subjects, whether it be by conquest, succession, or purchase; but especially if any pretenders are left.

Different sentiments in Religion is a circumstance to be regarded. Nothing sets a people so much at variance amongst themselves as different opinions, or even the use of different ceremonies in matters of Religion; if there should be two sects only, and that of the government the strongest and most numerous, there will be a necessity nevertheless for having
always

always
insole
of rel
State.
every
point
there
where
those
forme
atten
join v
tion.

'T
King
relig
vent
admi
easie
fever
relig
unio
and

T
like
in re
a S
as v
and
oth

always a number of Citadels, to restrain the insolence of that party, who under the pretext of religion would make attempts against the State. If there happen to be many sects, and every particular sect very much inferior in point of numbers to all the rest in general, there is less danger to be apprehended than where the different sects were but two, and those nearly of equal numbers; because in the former case, if any one of them should make an attempt against the State, all the rest would join with the Sovereign to oppose the innovation.

'Twas for this reason, as it is said,* that the Kings of *Egypt* encourag'd such a variety of religions in their Kingdom heretofore, to prevent their subjects uniting to oppose the evil administration of the government; for it is an easier matter to adjust the different interests of several people, than to reconcile them in their religious sentiments; and without this latter no union can subsist for any time, without fears and jealousies one of the other.

The temper and disposition of the people is likewise a circumstance greatly to be consider'd in regulating the number of Citadels proper for a State; cities have their several complexions, as well as the individuals which compose them, and nations the same; some men are cholerick, others bold and daring, some timorous, some

* *Diodorus*, lib. 22. cap. 4.

drunkards, others entirely given up to women. The *Athenians* heretofore had the reputation of being too forward and bold in undertakings above their strength; those of *Lacedemon* backward and slow to undertake even where assured of success; the *Asiatics* in general were accused of effeminacy. In Monarchical States it is proper to have Citadels in the towns of greatest power and strength, where the inhabitants are fickle, bold, and fond of their liberties.

When *Charles V.* visited the city of *Naples*, the Nobles of that Kingdom accompanied him to shew him the magnificence of their Capital; that Monarch taking notice of the white horses he saw painted up and down in several parts of the city, unharness'd, unbridled, and in appearance wild and unbroke, very gravely ask'd the meaning of it; they told him 'twas the Arms of their city, and an emblem of the disposition of its inhabitants, who could not submit to a harsh and rigorous government. 'I intend, says he, to have a good Fort * built upon yonder hill, and that instantly; we shall perhaps by and by see the effects of it; for it is by no means proper, that such a vicious horse should be without a bridle.' The Citadel at *Antwerp* was built on the same account.

Towns of this kind in aristocratical States ought to have Citadels likewise.

* *Chateau ou Fort St. Elme.*

In Democratical States, where the people are fickle, forward, bold, and enterprizing, a Citadel tho' it be an encroachment on their privileges, is necessary in their Capital to restrain the giddy multitude, and check the ambition of any single person. The Citadel of *Athens* would have prevented the success of *Pyrrhus*'s enterprize, if it had been guarded as it ought to have been; and had not that tyrant found means to get possession of it by policy, he never could have effected the making himself master of the government of that famous Republick, and there establish'd his tyranny. Where the people are thus inclined, Citadels are useful in all great towns, be their form of government what it will.

The people's love of their Sovereign, and attachment to his government is another article to be consider'd. In a Monarchy, if a King happens not to be beloved by his subjects, he must make himself fear'd by them, by building Citadels in his largest cities; observing likewise the same measures in regard to those who in point of interest are less dependant on him than others; as the inhabitants of his frontier towns, who have large dealings with the neighbouring States, and whose trade might perhaps be considerably encreas'd, if they were under the same government. 'Twas partly on these motives that the town of *Lisle* in *Flanders*, while belonging to the King of *Spain*, always wish'd to be under the *French* government; which

which interest of theirs, together with the marks of zeal since given by them on the most important occasions, have enroll'd its inhabitants amongst the most faithful of the King's subjects. A farther reason for building Citadels in such towns as may be too well inclined to a neighbouring State, is the easy manner in which they may be succor'd by the enemy, as well as the possibility of their drawing other towns of the same Province into their cabals, who may either have the same interests with themselves, or dependances of some other kind. The number of Citadels, Castles, Forts or Redoubts, proper to be built on such an occasion, whether a single one or more, must be discretionary, and can only be determin'd by other circumstances.

Mezeray tells us, that in the year 1542 *Charles VII.* the more effectually to secure the town of *Bordeaux*, betwixt whom and *England* there was grown an attachment, both on account of their mutual interests in trade, and some inter-marriages, banish'd forty of those Seigniors and Burgesses whom he most suspected, and built the *Chateau Trompette* and that of *Ha*, to keep the rest in their obedience.

In a Democracy, when composed of several Provinces and large towns, if the people of any of those towns refuse to contribute to the publick expence, on pretence of their great distance from the common enemy, it will be but prudent to build Fortresses in those towns, as well as justice to all the rest; it was for this reason that

that i
Unit
the bu
' Pro
' pati
' ther
' yok
' thei
' rest
' to
' exar
' duc
' and
' the
' the
' mor
' to g
' itfel
' T
' bein
' stran
' the
' upo
' not
' thar
' mar
' imp
' desp
' Tha
' cha
A

that in the year 1600 the States General of the *United Provinces* took the resolution to order the building of one at *Groninguen*. 'The other Provinces, says *Ridan* * could not brook with patience seeing those of *Groninguen*, whom themselves had deliver'd from the *Spanish* yoke at the expence of their blood, enjoy at their ease and free cost that liberty which the rest of the Provinces had spared no expence to purchase. Such a partiality was of bad example, and could not but in time be productive of great discontent in the other cities, and that variance amongst themselves tend to the enfeebling of the State; for which reason the Council were of opinion, that it was more eligible to disoblige a single town, than to give way to an obstinacy so unreasonable in itself, and so dangerous in its consequences.

'Those of *Groninguen*, says the same author, † being come to the *Hague* made their remonstrances, that the union of the Provinces of the *Low Countries* was founded principally upon two points, Religion and Liberty; that nothing was more incompatible with these than the building of Citadels; a yoke and mark of servitude never known to have been imposed on free cities, till they had first been despoil'd of their liberties by force of arms. That they had very lately been pleased to discharge several cities from the hardship of that

* Annals, lib. 17.

† Annals, lib. 16.

98 *The safety, &c. of States,*

‘ yoke; for which reason they implor’d the
 ‘ States to grant the same favour to those of
 ‘ *Groninguen*. The States made reply to the
 ‘ Deputies, in which they set forth, that a Ci-
 ‘ tadel was no less the protection of peaceable
 ‘ citizens and good people, than the terror and
 ‘ curb of the seditious and turbulent; the in-
 ‘ nocence of the one being best secured by re-
 ‘ straining the others within the bounds of their
 ‘ duty; That when the point was duly consi-
 ‘ der’d, they doubted not their measures being
 ‘ approved, not only by the cities and provinces
 ‘ of the *Low Countries*, but by all foreign na-
 ‘ tions likewise, as it could not be supposed they
 ‘ should have it either in their intentions or
 ‘ power to make an ill use of a Citadel to the
 ‘ prejudice of any person whatsoever. Lastly,
 ‘ that it was the only means of preserving
 ‘ *Groninguen*, by restraining that power they
 ‘ had formerly exercis’d to the prejudice of the
 ‘ liberty of their neighbours.

When great towns are either very distant
 from, or entirely detach’d from that part of the
 dominions where the Sovereign resides, ’tis like-
 wise a sufficient reason for building Citadels in
 them. The subjects in such a situation have
 seldom much affection for or dread of their So-
 vereign, and those grandees who are disaffected
 to the government may more easily attempt to
 disturb it; nay even when the nobles have no
 such design of themselves, very often the inno-
 vations and outrages of the governours force
 them

them
 reign
 disfor
 tance
 safest
 such
 temp
 reign
 have

Of t

P
 the Fo
 having
 center

Th
 say, t
 canno
 ter of
 to lea
 engag
 conve
 togeth
 and a
 their
 enemy

them into such engagements; while the Sovereign is at a loss what remedy to apply to those disorders, of which by reason of his great distance he is ignorant of the real cause. The safest way therefore is by building Citadels in such towns, to put it out of their power to attempt any thing to the prejudice of their Sovereign, whatever cause of discontent they may have receiv'd from their governors.

CHAP. III.

Of the place where the Fortresses ought to stand.

POLITICIANS are as little agreed about the proper place where Fortresses built against the Foreign enemy ought to stand; some are for having them on the frontiers, others in the center of the dominions.

Those who are for fortifying the frontiers say, that when those are fortified the enemy cannot penetrate; unless he makes himself master of those Fortresses, as it is a maxim in war to leave nothing behind; and that while he is engaged in attacking them, the Sovereign has a convenient opportunity for drawing his forces together, to receive succours from his friends and allies, and afterwards either to march to their relief, or else make some diversion in the enemy's country; that when the Fortresses are

100 *The safety, &c. of States,*

in the center of his dominions, after the enemy has once enter'd the country, the Sovereign cannot easily draw his forces together; and thus the assailant being master of the field, soon becomes so of the strong-holds, and consequently of the whole State.

The Politicians reasons who are for having the Fortresses in the midst of the country, are as follows; that in a large and open State it will be difficult for a few Fortresses to prevent the enemy's passing between some two of them, and a vast expence to build so many as would be necessary to prevent his penetrating at all events, and still greater to keep them in repair and garrison them, which would even require a greater number of troops to be kept in constant pay than would form a good army; such an expence as none but a Prince of exceeding great power could afford; and in that case it would be better to maintain that army constantly in the field than to keep it block'd up and apart in several places; the rather, as when a powerful enemy has once enter'd the State, the Fortresses will not be able to prevent his drawing provisions and forage from the open towns and villages, by sending strong escorts with those foraging parties; for his garrisons being dispers'd up and down, no single one will be capable of opposing such escorte; and if he would join several of them together, two very great hazards must be run in attempting it, for they may either be defeated very easily upon their
march,

march, or the places so strip of their garrisons attack'd and taken by the enemy. To which they add, that it is much easier for an enemy to make himself master of such Fortresses as stand upon the frontier than of such as are in the heart of the State, as he can with so much ease and convenience be supply'd from his own country, both with provision, ammunition, and whatever else he may stand in need of for such an enterprize.

These several reasons on one side and t'other, how judicious soever, by no means determine the point: To decide the question, we must consider the greatness and power of the State.

If the State is very great both in extent and power, the Fortresses intended against foreign enemies ought all of them to be placed on its frontiers, removing them far from the center of the dominions, to keep the enemy likewise and danger at a distance; that while he is amusing himself with attacking them, the rest of the country may be at peace, and the Sovereign have leisure to prepare to make head against them: It would be rather hurtful than serviceable to have those Fortresses in the heart of the State, because as on the one hand there is no foreign enemy there to be apprehended, so on the other hand there is a danger to be fear'd of furnishing the seditious with a handle for rebellion; and who, if they should once make themselves masters of them, the

100 *The safety, &c. of States,*

in the center of his dominions, after the enemy has once enter'd the country, the Sovereign cannot easily draw his forces together; and thus the assailant being master of the field, soon becomes so of the strong-holds, and consequently of the whole State.

The Politicians reasons who are for having the Fortresses in the midst of the country, are as follows; that in a large and open State it will be difficult for a few Fortresses to prevent the enemy's passing between some two of them, and a vast expence to build so many as would be necessary to prevent his penetrating at all events, and still greater to keep them in repair and garrison them, which would even require a greater number of troops to be kept in constant pay than would form a good army; such an expence as none but a Prince of exceeding great power could afford; and in that case it would be better to maintain that army constantly in the field than to keep it block'd up and apart in several places; the rather, as when a powerful enemy has once enter'd the State, the Fortresses will not be able to prevent his drawing provisions and forage from the open towns and villages, by sending strong escorts with those foraging parties; for his garrisons being dispers'd up and down, no single one will be capable of opposing such escorte; and if he would join several of them together, two very great hazards must be run in attempting it, for they may either be defeated very easily upon their march,

march, or the places so stript of their garrisons attack'd and taken by the enemy. To which they add, that it is much easier for an enemy to make himself master of such Fortresses as stand upon the frontier than of such as are in the heart of the State, as he can with so much ease and convenience be supply'd from his own country, both with provision, ammunition, and whatever else he may stand in need of for such an enterprize.

These several reasons on one side and t'other, how judicious soever, by no means determine the point: To decide the question, we must consider the greatness and power of the State.

If the State is very great both in extent and power, the Fortresses intended against foreign enemies ought all of them to be placed on its frontiers, removing them far from the center of the dominions, to keep the enemy likewise and danger at a distance; that while he is amusing himself with attacking them, the rest of the country may be at peace, and the Sovereign have leisure to prepare to make head against them: It would be rather hurtful than serviceable to have those Fortresses in the heart of the State, because as on the one hand there is no foreign enemy there to be apprehended, so on the other hand there is a danger to be fear'd of furnishing the seditious with a handle for rebellion, and who, if they should once make themselves masters of them, the

Prince would have a great deal of trouble to bring back to their duty.

Monf. *de Roban* says,* that ' Powerful States ' ought to have only a small number of Fortresses, those to be very good ones, and upon their frontiers, but none in the heart of their State; because as they have more reason to be apprehensive of civil wars than foreign ones, and a great Empire is never to be attack'd without the former, 'tis at once to remove both the pretence and means of their subsistence.

Heretofore, says the Chevalier *de Ville*,|| they began their Fortifications by building Towers, and before they had finish'd them, perceiv'd they could be of no service but for a retreat to the malecontents; of which we saw many instances in the civil wars of *France*. Whenever they are found in the heart of a great State, 'twill be but prudence in the Sovereign either to demolish them by his express command, or to leave them to be ruin'd by time.

If a Prince is of an indifferent degree of power, and his dominions of a mean extent, it will be proper not only to fortify his frontiers, but likewise one town towards the center of his dominions, which ought to be that of his own residence. When his frontier places are fortified, there will be no necessity for maintaining a garrison in his Capital in time of peace; he

* *Parfait Capit.* chap. 1.

|| *Fortificat.* chap. 3. lib. 1.

ought rather to turn it into a magazine for laying up ammunition and victualling stores of all kinds, from whence, as from their head or fountain, to supply all the rest of the Fortresses in his State. The reason why such a Prince ought to have a Fortref in the midst of his dominions is, that if the enemy should come to be masters of the field they might at once break into the heart of the country, drive him from his Capital, and pillage it, putting all to fire and sword; which are but the natural consequences of the first degree of licence allow'd the soldiers on these occasions, who are not afterwards to be restrain'd; and serving the whole country and all the open towns in the same manner, ruin the State to such a degree as not to lift up its head again for a long time; and the frontier places being unable to draw any support or succours from the heart, will at last find themselves under a necessity of surrendering.

But when a Capital is fortified, should the enemy pursue the same measures, and break into the heart of the State, the peasants after withdrawing their harvest and forage into that Fortref, as likewise all the best of their effects, might there take refuge themselves. The assailant would not dare to attack a place so well provided, strengthen'd by such a number of hands, all equally interested in its preservation with the Sovereign himself: he would be the more cautious how he took such a step, as he could not be assured of his convoys, with the

necessary subsistence of his army, (and whatever else he should stand in need of for such an enterprize) safe passing between the Fortresses on the frontiers: Therefore, if he is wise, he will not think of attempting the siege till he has first secured a passage for his convoys, by taking those places on the frontiers capable of obstructing them; this would give the Sovereign attack'd time for raising new levies, for assembling his troops, and expecting succours from his allies.

In the last war in *Italy* if *Turin* the Capital of *Piedmont* had not been fortified, the *French* General by pursuing such measures as we have just now mention'd would have obliged all other fortified places in that country to surrender, and had conquer'd the whole State, before its Sovereign could have received from his allies sufficient succours to oppose him.

In the year 1672, when King *Louis XIV.* attack'd the States of the *United Provinces*, and penetrated into their country, had not the city of *Amsterdam*, which is as it were the Capital of that State, been shut up so close that the King could not make himself master of it, 'tis certain in the general consternation of that time, the rest of the towns would all have submitted.

For which reason the States aware of the consequences have since encompassed that City with new works after the modern way of Fortification,

If

If *Rome*, the Capital of the ecclesiastick State, and of Christendom, had been well fortified in the year 1527, the Constable of *Bourbon* had never dared to have attack'd it, at least never carried it by assault before succours could be got together; nor had that city experienc'd the unhappy consequences of the success of such attacks. ‡ All the Barbarities that can possibly be imagin'd, all kinds of impious sacrileges, horrid and cruel actions, incendiaries only excepted, were perpetrated at the sack of that famous city, which continued for two whole months. On the other hand, in the year following, 1528, *Naples* being well enclos'd and fenc'd with fortifications, found herself not only in a capacity of protecting herself from such a misfortune, but likewise preserv'd the whole Kingdom. M. *de Lautrec* having amused himself too long in attacking some of the frontier towns on the Ecclesiastick State, in order to secure his retreat, gave the Vice-roy *Moncade* opportunity to provide himself before-hand with necessaries of all kinds for his defence; inso-much that M. *de Lautrec* despairing to carry the place by force, attempted it by famine; but for want of cutting off all supplies of provisions at first, the siege was drawn out to a length beyond his expectation. He came to want provisions himself, sickness and pestilence crept into his camp, with which being attack'd himself,

‡ *Mezeray*.

he died. A few days after his death the army was forc'd to raise the siege; and thus that Capital, by being itself fortified, prevented the conquest of the whole Kingdom.

It may be objected to what I am here proposing, that in a State of this kind, tho' the Capital be fortified, it is not certain the enemy will first fall to attacking the frontier places; that we are not to lay too great stress on that old maxim, a conqueror must leave no place behind him; which rule is not always observ'd; those who have trusted to it have sometimes found themselves deceiv'd; that the wisest and wariest Commanders have dispens'd with it on occasion, as *Francis I.* did in 1524, when he went to conquer the Dutchy of *Milan*, who left *Novara*, *Pavia*, and *Savona* behind him, and march'd directly to *Milan*.

The Marquis *Spinola* did the very same thing the first time he was for conquering *Friesland* in the year 1610. He left behind him and on either side not only *Arimberg*, *Graves*, *Nimeguen*, places of very great consequence upon the frontiers and avenues, but cross'd the *Rhine* and pass'd by the Fortresses of *Grol* and *Blisfort*, and marching forward besieged and took *Oldinzel* and *Lingen*.

This objection, if made, doth by no means defeat our proposition any more than the two instances now mention'd. In war rules must vary as circumstances vary; in the enterprize of *Francis I.* and that of the Marquis *de Spinola*,

nola
wha
wer
left
cou
bec
selv
tren
atta
and
of
no
the
S
in t
is w
unlu
run
our
wha
150
batt
from
the
their
Alv
fome
hear
situa
for l
Max

nola, circumstances were quite the reverse of what we are now supposing; the places they went to attack were less strong than those they left behind or on one side of them, and the latter could not obstruct the passing of their convoys, because they had taken care to provide for themselves otherways; they both of them did extremely well not to weaken their armies by attacking places of no consequence in the main, and in marching directly to those which were of the last importance; to give their enemies no time to strengthen themselves, or to provide the necessaries for a good defence.

Such a State, even tho' it have a good army in the field, will not be secure unless its Capital is well fortified: For armies are liable to many unlucky accidents; 'tis not saying, I will not run the hazard of a battle, it is not always in our power to avoid it, as may appear from what happen'd to the *Venetians* in the year 1509, when their army was necessitated to give battle to the *French*, without expecting orders from the Senate, at the *Guiera d'Adda*, near the village of *Aignadel*, where they left all their infantry behind them, and their General *Alvian* after having lost an eye was made Prisoner; that had not *Venice* herself, the head and heart of that Seignory, been so advantageously situated, she had at that time stood a fair chance for losing her ancient liberty. For the Emperor *Maximilian I.* says the Historian,* had form'd

* *Mezeray.*

a scheme for besieging *Venice*, to crush the head of that Republick at once; from all which we must conclude, that a Prince of a middling degree of power, and whose dominions are of a mean extent, ought not only to have Fortresses upon his frontiers, but his Capital ought likewise to be at least as well fortified as those places intended to bar the avenues of his State.

As to a weak Prince, if his Principality is of any extent, it will be most convenient for him to have his Fortresses in the midst of his State, to serve as places of refuge for all his subjects both of the country and open towns, at least for laying up their chief effects there. If his Principality is very small, it is of little importance whether that single Fortress which he builds for his own security, be placed on his frontiers, or in the midst of his State; he is only to consult the convenience of its situation in this respect, that if it is not the place of his residence, he may upon occasion have it in his power to withdraw thither whatever he has of most value and consideration; while himself goes in search of his allies, to quicken those succours of which he stands in need.

Fortresses built with a view to domestick enemies, ought in general to be placed in those parts of the State where a Prince has most reason to suspect the fidelity of the inhabitants.

If the places most suspected happen to be large towns, care must be taken to build the Citadels on such a spot of ground as that,

First,

First, They may command the town, and not the town the citadel.

Secondly, To build them in such parts of the town as are strongest by their situation; for instance, either cover'd by a morass or inundation, or on the summit of a steep mountain, inaccessible on the side next the country, &c. in order to put the besiegers under a necessity of beginning with the attack of the town.

Thirdly, That they be so placed as to prevent any succours from being sent into the town, in case the inhabitants should revolt; to which purpose they must command the most important and principal entrance. As in maritime towns the Citadels ought to be placed on that spot where they may with the greatest advantage command the entrance of the harbour, as those of *Havre de Grace*, *Brest*, *Blavet*, and *St. Maloes* are; as to towns situate on a river they must be placed either up or down the stream, as may be most convenient for intercepting any succours sent from their powerful neighbours to assist the revolted inhabitants.

Strada says,* this maxim has been violated in the situation of the Citadel of *Antwerp*, because as it is placed on that side of the *Scheld* which looks towards *Brabant*, it cannot obstruct an enemy coming on the *Holland* side, who would enter *Antwerp* that way; and which it might have done, had it been built on the

* *Strada*, lib. 7.

other side of the town, towards the mouth of the *Scheld*, looking towards *Holland*. Others however defend the situation, by saying the Duke of *Alba* in building that Citadel rather consider'd how he might defend himself against the town, than the town against a foreign enemy. They add, that there was a good reason for building it on that side, where *Spain* could easily draw succours from all the Provinces round about, which ought to be a consideration of the first rate with those who build Citadels; and if that of *Antwerp* had been turn'd towards *Holland*, it must have wanted that convenience. For my own part, I am perswaded, *Serbillon* who conducted that work, had no such thought at that time, because when that Citadel was built *Holland* was as much under the King's subjection as *Brabant*; and therefore the passage was left open on both sides for receiving of succours; but I am of opinion, that in placing it where it now stands regard was had only to the security of the place, for as it is a flat country all about it, and that part leading towards *Holland* lies so low, that the river is forc'd to be sustained by dykes, to prevent its overflowing and ruining the villages; 'twould have been imprudently done to build it on a spot where the enemy had no more to do but to cut thro' the dyke to make themselves masters of it; whereas standing as it now does upon ground higher than the water, 'tis not liable to any possibility of such an inconvenience: And altho'

Flan-

Flan-
falle
not
tade
easy
und
F
as it
prev
'tis o
the
migh
supp
the
or t
any
the
strea
rece
If
Sove
ther
shou
wher
the
such
ters
built

by the means of Fortresses. 111

Flanders has since been divided, and *Holland* fallen into the hands of an enemy, we should not even now fail of that advantage in the Citadel, which was one of its first objects, the easy receiving succours from all the Provinces under the obedience of *Spain*.

Fourthly, Citadels must be built in such places as it may not be in the power of the town to prevent their receiving succours from without: 'tis on this account they are not to be plac'd in the midst of the town, where the inhabitants might besiege them on all sides, and keep out supplies of what they stood most in need; for the same reason, when a river runs either by or through a town, and there is no danger of any foreign succours being sent the inhabitants, the Citadels ought always to be placed up the stream, that the Prince may with greater ease receive succours into the Citadels.

If the parts of the country suspected by the Sovereign are such districts where there is either no town or very small ones, his Fortresses should be placed on some rising grounds, from whence he may command the flat country with the greatest advantage, disposing them after such a manner as to strike terror into all quarters of that district, as *Tacitus* reports of those built in *England* by *Agricola*.

SECTION

C H A P. IV.

Of the conditions which render Fortresses important.

AMongst the many conditions which constitute the importance of a Fortress, some are of so much greater weight than others, as ought to determine the Prince without any hesitation to fortify the place where these are found, rather than where all the rest concur; for which reason we shall speak of them according to the rank they bear with respect to themselves.

A Fortress is of importance to a State,

First, When it serves as a key or inlet to that State; that is to say, when by well fortifying the spot where it stands one may with the assistance either of a few or more there defend oneself, make head against a powerful army, and prevent them penetrating into the country, till they have first made themselves masters of it, unless they chuse to run the hazard of perishing for want of provisions and necessaries for their army. If when there is a particular avenue through which an enemy must necessarily pass to enter the Kingdom, the Sovereign should build a Fortress at a distance from that spot; tho' its natural situation be ever so strong, that Fortress cannot be call'd important, because an army may enter the State without any ne-

cessity

cessity of attacking it, or making themselves masters of it; such is that of *Malmö* in *Scania*, a maritime Province of *Sweden*, which has been fortified rather on account of its eminence than for any importance of the post.

Fortresses which bar the entrance of a State are,

First, Such as stand either at the inlet or outgoing, or in the midway of a narrow neck betwixt two mountains, through which an enemy must necessarily pass to enter it; and which consequently cover all the country behind them: Such was the situation of *Sutrium*, a confederate town of the *Romans*, which was call'd the † gate or key of the *Tuscan*; the same may be said of *Briancon*, and some other places of the *Alps* and *Pyrennees* with regard to *France*, and of *Fonterabia* in respect to *Spain*: When places of this kind are not fortified, the country lies open and exposed to every invader.

Amongst these mountain-passes 'tis rare to meet with any where the passage is absolutely barr'd on both sides of them; there are few where an army would not find a way to penetrate either to the right or left; 'tis their ordinary defect.

Secondly, Such as stand upon great rivers at places thro' which an enemy may or should pass to enter the country. These were the reasons

† *Tit. Liv. lib. 9. Decad. 1.*

114 *The safety, &c. of States,*

which induced the *Romans* in the time of *Hannibal** to build *Cremona* upon the *Po*; and for the same reasons the town of *Auxona* upon the *Saon*, and *Perron* and other places upon the *Somme* were fortified, when the Seventeen Provinces of the *Low Countries* belong'd all to one Sovereign.

'Twas likewise for the same reason that *Louis XIV.* order'd the fortifications of some places of his Kingdom, which stand upon the borders of the *Rhine* on the *French* side, to be enlarg'd, and some new ones to be built, as *Fort Louis*, *Huninguen*, and *New Brisac*; and it was principally upon this account that the Empire was with so much difficulty prevail'd on in the two last treaties of Peace, to consent that *Strasburg* should remain in the hands of the King of *France*; because that city commands one of the principal Passes of the *Rhine*, and that without *Fort Kehl* it would leave an open entrance into *Germany*, and shut up that of *Alsace*: It may likewise very well be said to be a place of importance, both on account of its greatness, and the riches and number of its inhabitants.

Thirdly, Fortresses which bar the entrance of a State are such as stand on the sea shore, where a descent and debarkment may conveniently be made; such are all places on the maritime coasts, where it is easy stepping a shore, and where

* *Tacitus* Histor. lib. 3.

nature has made good anchorage roads and harbours; for this reason *Gayetta* is call'd one of the gates of the Kingdom of *Naples*, with respect to those enemies who can attack it only by sea: A great many of the maritime towns of the Kingdom of *France* may properly be called by the same name, more especially *Calais*, on account of its nearness to *England*, and which for this reason was formerly call'd the *English* ladder of descent.

One single Fortress of this kind well built may be the means of saving a whole country; too much care therefore cannot be taken either in their construction, or of their guard and maintenance.

Secondly, A Fortress is of importance when serving for a communication between several parts of the State; thus *Luxembourg*, *Cologne*, &c. are of importance to the Emperor's Dominions, because they are the towns through which his troops must pass on their march from *Germany* into the hereditary *Low Countries*; as are *Trent* and some places of the *Tyrol*, serving for the same purpose between *Germany* and the *Milanese*, &c. to which likewise we may add *Trieste*, situate on the borders of the *Adriatick*, as it lies convenient for embarking troops and warlike stores for the Kingdoms of *Naples* and *Sicily*.

Thirdly, A Fortress is of importance when being fortified itself, and lying amongst several frontier towns it may serve as a principal ma-

116 *The Safety, &c. of States,*

gazine either for supplying that army which covers the frontiers, or the neighbouring towns upon occasion; of this kind is *Arras* in *Artois*, and *Perpignan* in *Roussillon*, &c. It is absolutely necessary that places of this kind should be fortified, lest the enemy should get possession of them, and fortify them, by which means all the rest might be extremely incommoded.

Fourthly, A Fortrefs is of importance, when capable of serving as an asylum or place of refuge for the people of a certain district of the country, and their effects, and may prevent the enemy's making any settlement there; in which respect several of those Forts built in the *East* and *West Indies* by the Princes of *Europe*, may be said to be important.

Fifthly, A Fortrefs is of importance when it may be a means of preventing the inhabitants of any great city, or a whole country, from casting off their obedience and subjection to their Sovereign; such was the Citadel of *Corinth* heretofore, which for some time kept the *Peloponesus* in obedience and subjection to *Philip* of *Macedon*, the father of *Perseus*, and such are the Castles and Citadels of many great towns at present, and some Forts built in certain Districts.

Sixthly, A Fortrefs is of importance when standing in some streights mouth or pass it may

1. Impose and exact customs on shipping and merchandize, which must necessarily pass that way on their voyage from one country to another, or on refusal destroy the trade of those foreign-

foreigners, and enlarge that of their own subjects; of this kind is the Fortress of *Elfinore* belonging to the King of *Denmark*, standing in the Straits of the *Sound*, at the entrance of the *Baltick*, and which obliges all ships to pay toll that pass that way.

2. When standing in the neighbourhood of a fruitful country it may either admit of the importing whatsoever is necessary for human life in their own country bottoms, or stop all foreign ones freighted with those commodities, and oblige them either to sell, or traffick them for those things with which themselves most abound; of this kind are the two famous Castles of the *Dardanelles*, standing near the ancient towns of *Seſtos* and *Abydos*, in the chops of that channel which joins the *Ægean* to the *Propontick*, and forms the mouth of the harbour of *Constantinople*, formerly *Byzantium*. What *Polybius* says of the advantageous situation of that famous city deserves here to be related, 'The *Byzantines*, says he, are seated in the most commodious place imaginable for transporting thither by sea whatever may contribute either to the convenience or luxury of mankind; their situation on the land side indeed is not so favourable; as to the sea, their city standing on the brink of it, no ship can either enter the port, or depart without their leave; and if the *Pontick* brings an infinity of things necessary for the use of men, the *Byzantines* are masters of them. The countries border-

118 *The safety, &c. of States,*

ing upon the *Pontick* furnish us with hides,
and good slaves in plenty for the common uses
of life: and for luxury, plenty of honey, bees-
wax, and salt-meats, and many other things
of the kind; themselves are likewise furnish'd
by sea with whatever our country produces,
as oils and wines of all sorts; sometimes they
deal in corn, which they either import or ex-
port, and still find their account in it. The
Greeks would not be able to traffick at all in
those commodities, or must trade to little
advantage, if either the *Turks* should make
an alliance with the *Galatians* and *Thracians*;
or did not inhabit that country themselves;
for we should no longer be at liberty to na-
vigate the *Pont*, by reason of the narrows and
that multitude of Barbarians which inhabit
those parts. I am fully convinced 'tis owing
to the advantages of their situation, that the
Turks are enabled to make such vast profits,
either by exporting those commodities which
they have in such abundance, or importing
those they want; at the same time it must be
acknowledg'd, those who deal with them find
their account likewise: And 'tis for this rea-
son, as they are useful to the whole world,
that the *Greeks* have them in such high es-
teem, and think them not only deserving of
the acknowledgments they pay them, but
the assistance of all *Greece* upon occasion.

'Tis said the Czar of *Muscovy* has in his view
the

* *Greece.*

the
to
Stra
him
by
Cap
pay
tise
his
this
othe
his
Fe
narro
tance
pass
them
there
their
of M
Pass
Se
stand
good
ing th
equip
ritime
maste
ships,
own i
Brest
molish

the making himself master of the *Palus Maotis*, to extend his Dominions from *Asoph* to the Straits of *Capha*; from whence he proposes to himself one day or other this advantage, that by building a good Fortress in the Straits of *Capha*, he shall be able to oblige the *Turk* to pay him tribute, in the same manner it is practised in the *Sound*, and to grant a permit for his vessels to trade in the *Mediterranean*, by this means to vend his own sea stores, and other manufactures of his country, to extend his commerce and enrich his people.

Fortresses built in Straits not altogether so narrow as the former, are likewise of importance, because in time of war the enemy cannot pass safely without an escort sufficient to protect them against such ships as may fall out of port there, nor in bad weather take the benefit of their roads and harbours; such are the Faro of *Messina*, the Straits of *Gibraltar*, and the Pass of *Calais*.

Seventhly, A Fortress is of importance when standing upon the sea it has a good road and good harbour, or at least is in a capacity of having them made; and from whence a fleet well equipp'd and sent out proportionable to the maritime force of the enemy, may make themselves masters of the sea, give chase to the enemy's ships, and a safe and convenient retreat to their own in case of a pursuit; such are *Toulon* and *Brest*, and such was *Dunkirk* before it was demolish'd.

As the importance of these last places depends upon their road and harbour, it will be necessary to explain the nature of both, and their most essential properties.

A road in general is a tract of sea at some small distance from the shore, where ships may ride at anchor, shelter'd from the winds in certain points; of these there are two kinds, natural ones, and those of a mixt kind.

The first are the simple work of nature, which she seems to have given mankind as a model for their imitation, when they would form such a one as should be most for their own convenience; such is that road described by *Virgil* in the following verses;

————— *est specus ingens*
Exest latere in montis, quo plurima vento
Cogitur inque sinus scindit sese unda reductos:
Deprensus olim statio tutissima nautis.

Such are the roads of *Toulon* and *Brest*, the last of which is so large, that foreign pilots frequently call it the bay of *Brest*.

The second kind are those to which men have made large additional works of masonry, of earth, stone, or timber work, to render the access and abode of ships more convenient and secure; these works are called dykes, piers, moles, which the ancients usually called *Aggeres*, being a common name for any mound of earth or heap of stone much higher than the usual surface of the earth; such were those moles which the Emperors *Antoninus* and *Mar-*

cus Aurelius repair'd upon the *Tyrhen* sea, near the town of *Ardea* in the *Latin* territory, about twenty miles distant from *Rome*.

For a road to be good the bottom must be of good holding ground, the road itself securely shelter'd from storms, and of so commodious a depth that ships of the first rate may come with safety and cast anchor within a cable's length of the shore; or if they could even run their heads ashore it would be so much the better.

A port or harbour is that part of the sea-coast, which lying within the land, serves as a retreat for vessels from storms and tempests, and for loading and unloading upon occasion, as likewise for a protection against attacks of all kinds from the ships of the enemy.

Of these there are three kinds, natural, artificial, and those of a mixt kind.

Of the first are those which nature has herself made perfect, like that of *Athens* formerly. * *Thucydides* observes that port contain'd within itself three other, and each so perfect without owing any thing to human industry, that foreigners on their arrival were at a loss which to prefer as the most convenient and safe abode. That celebrated harbour is by long tract of time so choak'd with sand, that at present it can only receive small vessels. The port of *Cartagena* in *Spain* is likewise the hand-work of nature only; it is the safest harbour in all *Spain*,

* Lib. i.

122 *The safety, &c. of States,*

Spain, and capable of containing any fleet how large soever. A *Spanish* author fancies it was that natural haven of which *Virgil* has given us so beautiful a picture in the first book of his *Æneid*:

*Est in secessu longo locus, insula portum
Efficit objectu laterum, quibus omnis ab alto
Frangitur, inque sinus scindit sepe unda reductos;
Hinc adque hinc vastæ rupes, geminique minantur
In cælum scopuli, quorum sub vertice latè
Æquora tuta silent: tum sylvis scena coruscis
Desuper, horrentique atrum nemus imminet umbrâ.
Fronte sub adversa scopulis pendentibus antrum:
Intus aquæ dulces, vivoque sedilia saxo;
Nympharum domus: hic fessas non vincula naves
Ulla tenent, unco non alligat anchora morsu.*

Within a long recess there lies a Bay,
An Island shades it from the rolling sea,
And forms a port secure for ships to ride;
Broke by the jutting land on either side,
In double streams the briny waters glide,
Betwixt two rows of rocks; a sylvan scene
Appears above, and groves for ever green.
A grot is form'd beneath, with mossy seats
To rest the *Nereids*, and exclude the heats.
Down thro' the crannies of the living walls,
The crystal streams descend in murmuring falls.
No hawsers need to bind the vessels here,
Nor bearded anchors, for no storms they fear.

Mr. Dryden's translation.

In the list of these natural harbours we may place *Brest*, which is one of the best and most spacious in the Kingdom; *Toulon* likewise, but above all *Malta*, which including two other

good

good ones, is capable of receiving the largest fleet that any Prince can send to sea. Such likewise are the ports of *Carelscoon* and *Gottenburg* in *Sweden*, and almost all those of the Kingdom of *Norway*. As tempests are very frequent in that sea, nature seems to have provided for them accordingly by the great number of good harbours she has made there without borrowing any assistance from art.

Artificial ports are the work of men's hands, to which the *Greeks* and *Romans* gave the name of *Catones*, or rather *Cutones*, according to *Festus*, who says, '*Cotones seu Cotones appellantur Portus in mari tutiores, arte & manu facti*;' such was the port of the famous *Carthage* in *Africk*, defended by the Fort call'd *Birsa*, which *Scipio* besieged before he could attack that city: Thus says *Appian*, '*ineunte deinde vere Scipio Byrsan simul & portum quem Cottonem vocant aggressus est*,' and such likewise was the port of *Puzzol* formerly, a town near *Naples*, and made by the hands of its inhabitants, of which we still see an arcade remaining, part of the mole to this day, and which the people call the bridge of *Caligula*. Works of this kind were extremely easy to them on account of the manageable property of their soil, such as is found at this day in the neighbourhood of that city; of this *Strabo* takes notice, '*Quas ad res commodum conducit arenarum ingenium, quæ calcis quem simillimæ comparatæ, validissimum conglutinantur in modum; unde*
com-

124 *The safety, &c. of States,*

commixta sabulo glareæ, aggeres projectant in pelagus, ripasque potentes sinuosos in recessus redigunt. The ancients rank'd in the list of artificial harbours that which the Emperor *Claudius* built near the mouth of the *Tiber*, on the shore opposite to *Ostium*. To construct them according to the design of engineers a large aperture or cavity must be cut in the solid beach, where the ground is firm, which is to be lined on all sides with a thick and strong revetment; this is to be the basin for receiving the sea-water, from hence two great moles or pier-heads, one on each side, are carried out a great way into the sea, embracing with extended arms such a space of water as may be capable of receiving ships of all kinds at its mouth or entrance, and there keep them out of the reach of all danger. *Lastly*, At the entrance of this harbour a mole is to be rais'd in the open sea, as big as a small Island, for whose foundation a ship must be sunk, like that famous one built for transporting the largest of the Obelisks to *Rome* from *Egypt*. When this mole is finish'd, an exceeding high tower is to be built on it, on whose summit are kept watch-fires in the night for a guidance to pilots. * *Julius Cesar* had an inclination to undertake the building such a one in his time, but was diverted from his purpose by the greatness of the labour and expence. The port of *Havre* may likewise have a place amongst the artificial ones, which was made

* *Suetonius* life of *Claudius*.

and

and its town fortified by *Francis I.* as that of *Dunkirk*, and many other towns in the *Low Countries*; amongst this number may be reckon'd the canal of *Mardyke*, tho' intended only for carrying off the land-waters from the country.

Harbours of the mixt kind are such as nature herself has not quite perfected, but left to be finish'd by the labour and industry of men: Many of the ports of *Italy* were anciently of this kind, and from their imperfect state have been made beautiful, commodious, safe, and easy of access; as those of *Brundisi*, *Tarentum*, *Luni*, *Messina*, and *Ravenna*.

Amongst the ports above-mention'd that of *Brundisi* was the most considerable, both on account of its extent and excellency; *in primis Brundisii portus sua excellentia præstat*, says *Strabo*; it was one large harbour, which contain'd within itself several lesser ones, all shelter'd and secur'd from the violence of the winds; having only one common entrance, from whence it extended itself on each side of the shore like a stag's branches issuing from the trunk; so that the city and port together exactly resembled the head and horns: From whence it had the name of *Brundisium*, signifying a stag's head in the language of that country.*

The port of *Tarentum* was large and spacious, but its entrance being very wide, was

* Geogr. lib. 6.

by that means more exposed to the swell of the sea; and in that entrance lay sunken rocks extremely dangerous.

The port of *Luni* was so call'd from *Luni*, the farthest town of *Tuscany* upon the *Tyrhene* sea on the side next the *Alps*; that port according to *Strabo* * was very large and exceeding beautiful, and comprehended several others all of a good depth; so that for a long time it serv'd as a retreat for all the shipping of those parts: It was likewise environ'd on both sides with very high mountains, from whose tops there was a very extensive prospect of the sea.

The port of *Messina* took its name from the mountain at whose feet it lies, it was very spacious, and capable of containing the largest fleet, having near it three bays, to wit, that of *Bayes* or *Baia*, that of the *Mare mortuum*, and *Avernum*, where ships according to *Florus* were likewise in safety.

That of *Ravenna* was the work of *Augustus*, where he built a camp in the form of a small city, for quartering his marines in the winter season. The ancient Geographers describe that city as resembling *Venice* in its situation, being built on piles in the midst of the waves. It was heretofore the principal sea-port the *Romans* had in the *Adriatick* gulph; but the appearance of that place is now quite alter'd; not only the *Lagunes* are become dry, but the sea fallen

* *Geog. lib. 5.*

off three miles from thence; and what was formerly a drown'd country is now one of the most fertile spots in *Italy*. It was in these two ports of *Ravenna* and *Messina* that *Augustus* was for keeping two fleets for the defence of the Empire; * *Classem Messini & alteram Ravennæ ad tutelam superi & inferi maris.*

Of these three several kinds of harbours the latter are the most ordinary, there being few which nature has made so perfect as to have left no defect in them. That of *Genoa*, for example, is spacious and deep enough, but exposed to the most tempestuous winds that reign in that part of the *Mediterranean*, lying almost open to the south-east: 'Tis long since they were obliged to raise a mole there, extending about 500 paces from the city; and finding that not sufficient, have since carried out another of equal length on the opposite side, from the point of *Faro*.

The properties of a good harbour are, a sufficient depth of water for large ships to enter at any time, whether the sea be in or out. Good offing, and easy access out of all danger from the winds; free entrance, without rock or sand-bank; the entrance so strait as to be easily barr'd and defended upon occasion, and to preserve the waters in its basin from being ruffled by the billows of the sea; not to be subject to overflow; that ships may lie so close within

shore as for their heads to touch the key; and shelter'd from all winds by the high mountains which surround it, and from whence you have a long survey of the sea. Lastly, that the shipping there be out of the reach of all danger, either of being set on fire, bombarded, or cannonaded from sea by the ships of the enemy.

'Tis rare to meet with harbours where all these properties are to be found, 'tis sufficient if they have the most essential of them. Good harbours make a part of the strength of a State, and are one of the principal means of its aggrandisement. *Strabo* assigns them the second place amongst the causes of the Greatness of the Roman Empire; '*cum multa a nobis disputata sint, nunc amplissima significabimus, quibus hoc tempore ad tantum majestatis fastigium res Romana conscenderit.* And afterwards he says, '*Secundum est maxima ex parte ipsius importunitas, & quod sic ubi portus existunt, magnitudine & excellentia mirabiles adstant adversus externorum impetus commodi, nec minus ad inferendas excursiones quam ad ipsam mercaturæ commoditatem & abundantiam.* Lib. 6. Geog.

Having already said as much or more concerning roads and harbours than our subject required, let us now return to Fortresses.

Eighthly, A Fortress is of importance to a State when serviceable to commerce, as it may by that means contribute both to the enriching the people, and encreasing the revenues of its Sovereign. It is advantageously situated for com-

commerce, when standing either upon the sea shore, with a good port, as *Rochelle*, *Marseilles*, &c. or upon some large navigable river, like *Bordeaux* on the *Garonne*, *Nantes* upon the *Loire*, and *Roan* upon the *Seine*; or on the banks of canals or small rivers, having a communication with a great many considerable towns, as *Lisle* in *Flanders*; and where the inhabitants have a particular talent at making things of common use and convenience, as at *Abbeville* and *Sedan*, famous for some kinds of woollen manufacture; or lastly, where the neighbouring country affords any of the necessities of human life.

Ninthly, A Fortress is of importance, when standing upon a frontier it is very large, and popular, its inhabitants very rich and capable of contributing more than is required of them towards the charge of the fortification, and maintenance of the garrison, as *Strasbourg*, *Lisle*, *Besançon*, &c.

Tenthly, A Fortress may be of importance, when being very strong by nature, and the Prince having domestick enemies to guard against, it may serve as a depository for his valuables and treasure, to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy, and being made use of against himself in war. When a Prince has a large hoard of treasure it is of the utmost consequence to him to have it lodg'd in some place of safety, and committed to the care of trusty and vigilant persons. In the
I history

130 *The Safety, &c. of States,*

history of *France* we have an example to this purpose well worth remarking, in the person of *Charles the Simple* and *Aganon* his favourite and first minister, * *Robert* Count of *Paris* having surpriz'd the city of *Laon* and seiz'd the treasures which *Aganon* had laid up there, with that money gain'd over to his interest a large party of the *French* nobility, and procured himself to be elected and crown'd King at *Rheims*, by Archbishop *Hervé*, the twentieth of *June* in the year 722.

A Prince should never order a Fortrefs to be built unless it may be of importance to his State in some or other of the circumstances abovemention'd; the expence of its construction and maintenance is too considerable to engage in, without a certainty of reaping some benefit from it in time of war.

The best Fortresses of any kind are such as shut up the entrance of their State, and furnish the means of attacking the enemy in his own country at the same time; but if it is a prudent part in a Sovereign to spare no expence in building such Fortresses as are absolutely necessary to protect his country from all insults or attacks of his neighbours, it is no less a point of wisdom, moderation and justice, not to build under the specious pretence of his own security, such as may give a reasonable occasion of jealousy to them; such jealousy

* *Mezeray.*

may

may very reasonably be entertain'd when the Fortress is attended by any of the four circumstances following :

1. When it is capable of serving as a door into the neighbouring territories, and consequently either the garrison or an army in time of war make incursions that way, lay them under contributions, or waste the country, and secure a retreat to themselves when they have done.

2. When it may be made use of for a place of arms, and store-magazine, for supplying an army upon occasion when order'd to march that way.

3. When it may either be a means of facilitating the siege of a neighbouring Fortress, or is absolutely necessary for that enterprize.

4. When it can obstruct the communication betwixt any of the Fortresses or Provinces of the neighbouring State.

Fortresses of these kinds, says the author of *Telemachus*, serve to no other end or purpose but to put the neighbouring States under the necessity either of submitting to be ruin'd themselves, or of ruining you to preserve themselves from approaching slavery : Such Fortresses, tho' pretended to be built for the security of a State, plunge it into extreme danger. The surest ramparts of a State are equity, moderation, publick faith, and the firm assurance of your neighbours that you are incapable of harbouring such a thought as that of usurping their possessions.

132 *The safety, &c. of States,*

Your bulwarks may fail you, and fortune desert you, but the love and confidence of your neighbours, who have experienc'd your moderation, will render your State invincible. Such States are seldom if ever attack'd, or should an ambitious neighbour make an attempt of that kind, all the rest interesting themselves in your preservation, would fly to arms in your defence; and the united assistance of so many nations who would find their own interest in supporting yours, would make you a more powerful Prince than such Fortresses, which would set all the world against you. If a Prince makes it his first aim to avoid all occasions of jealousy in his neighbours, his country will flourish with the blessings of peace, and himself become the arbiter of other nations; but if he gives them reason to suspect that he is forming designs upon their liberties, all will conspire against him, even those who take no part in the war will wish his abasement, nor will jealousy leave him a single friend.

The circumstances under which a Prince intending to build Fortresses of this kind, to shut up the avenues of his own country, and make an opening into that of his neighbours, should have no regard to that jealousy, are, when he is inferior in power to that neighbour, when the advantages he derives from those Fortresses are manifestly less calculated for the attack of others than for his own defence; or lastly, when they are absolutely necessary for the security of his country.

CHAP.

CHAP. V.

Of the conditions which render the situation of Fortresses advantageous or disadvantageous.

IF it is of moment to build no Fortresses but what may be of importance, it is no less so to have particular regard to the advantages of their situation; for it is with Fortresses in point of perfection as it is with mankind, in the latter the best education is thrown away where a genius is wanting; nor is it in the power of art to make a Fortress what it ought to be, unless seconded with a happy situation. Art indeed in both cases may remedy certain defects, but there are circumstances in which nothing is to be done, especially with regard to Fortresses; there are particulars in the article of situation sometimes so absolutely necessary that it is not in the power of human industry, or the most unbounded expence to supply the want of them; for instance, if a Prince's power consists wholly in the succours of his allies, for them to have opportunity and means to succour him, it is absolutely necessary the situation of his Fortresses should be difficult of attack by open force, difficult to be besieged, and easy to be relieved; which three qualifications, but particularly the two last, are in the gift of nature only.

134 *The safety, &c. of States,*

By the situation of a Fortress we understand the various circumstances of the ground round about it, and of the particular spot on which it stands; we shall distinguish them into dry land, aquatick, and common situations.

By dry-land situations we mean such as are upon *terra firma*, and above a large cannon shot from either sea, lakes, rivers, morass, or canals. By aquatick we mean those which either stand in the midst of such waters, or are surrounded on all sides by them. And, under the term of common situations are comprehended such as stand on the borders of these waters only, and are not entirely detach'd from the land.

Of these three kinds of Fortress-situations, some are upon an even plain, others upon a broken one, some upon the summit of a land-mountain, others on the decline of it; some again are partly on the decline of the mountain and partly on the plain, some upon a small rising ground, others in a valley; and lastly, some upon rocks steep and inaccessible.

Each of these several kinds of situation may be subdivided again into others, according to the different circumstances which accompany them, which are so numerous it would be a difficult matter to find two perfectly alike: We shall speak of all those various circumstances in explaining the conditions and properties required in a situation to merit the building of a Fortress

Page 134.

These

These conditions and properties are eight in number, we shall treat of them according to their several degrees of advantage.

SECTION I.

Of the first condition of a situation.

THE first necessary condition or property in the situation of a Fortress, is not to be unhealthy, and to have sufficient quantity of water; otherwise the troops in garrison can neither have health, strength, vigour, nor spirit, qualities all absolutely necessary to enable them to support the fatigues of their duty, in the guard and defence of places; without this property, all others how advantageous soever, can be productive of no effect.

A situation may be unhealthy, from three causes, either from the air, the water, or the fruits of the earth.

There is no denying a mutual communication between air and bodies, and that it is extremely difficult for the one to be infected without the other partaking at the same time; the badness of the air may be discover'd by the colour and complexion of the inhabitants, by their habit of body, or by some particular circumstances in the situation.

The air of an inhabited country is certainly unwholesome when the inhabitants are of a

yellow or pale complexion: When a very great many epidemical distempers reign at certain times of the year, that great numbers of people die of them, and few of the inhabitants attain extreme old age; or lastly, when the air is not well temper'd or qualified, being either too light and thin, as on the tops of extreme high mountains; or too gross and heavy, as in very deep vallies or bottoms; too moist, as in excessive watery places, or too dry, as on sandy plains; too hot, as on the sides of some hills having a full south aspect; or as much too cold, as on others lying entirely open to the north: From whence we may infer, that in all countries whatsoever the most healthy situations are those of a moderate elevation; and that in our choice of them we should be careful in a hot country to avoid those parts where the hot winds usually blow, and in a cold country those most exposed to the north, always keeping at a great distance from fens, standing waters, and other unwholesome places; but more especially if the morning winds commonly blow from those quarters.

It is certain that contagious influences are communicated to bodies in proportion as they are more or less disposed to receive them; and experience has convinc'd us there is no kind of air to which some persons may not naturalize themselves; therefore if the Fortress required is to be a large one, and of the people already sent thither many are accusom'd to the climate
and

and but few die, such places may be fortified when there are strong reasons for so doing; but if upon tryal few do well there, how urgent soever may be the Sovereign's occasions for a Fortress, it would be a piece of inhumanity to attempt it, and no less an act of imprudence, because no views of gain, how great soever, would tempt any one to go and live there: Besides, in a siege the bad air would destroy more men than the enemy, and should it last long enough, sickness alone oblige the garrison to surrender.

If only a small Fortress is wanted, and the place to be occupied by the soldiers only; the ill effects of the bad air may be prevented by frequently shifting the garrison, that the soldier's stay there being but short, he may not have time to fall down.

When that bad air proceeds from the ditches the defect may be remedied in such Fortresses where any current is to be introduced; for as it is occasion'd by the putrefaction of the water, 'tis only shifting that in the ditches twice a week in the summer season.

To know before-hand whether a Fortress will be healthy or not, it is necessary to examine with attention the virtues of the water on the spot, and whether they are calculated for preserving those in perfect health who drink it.

The water of a place must have some bad quality,

1. If the inhabitants are not of a good complexion, if they are weakly, subject to pains in their limbs, and scurvy.

2. If

138 *The safety, &c. of States,*

2. If after boiling the water, a good deal of sand or slime is found in the bottom of the kettle.

3. If the pot-herbs boil'd in it, are longer a dressing than ordinary.

4. If the water is foul, and either in its spring or course there are bullrushes found, or filth of any other kind.

5. If it passes thro' a marshy ground, and the spring itself is in a plain.

The third token by which may be discover'd whether a situation is healthy or otherwise, is the fruits and herbs which grow there; the fruits and herbs of a country cannot be of a good kind when the liver of the animal which feeds on them is livid and corrupt: 'Twas by this token, according to *Vitruvius*, that the Ancients examin'd whether the places where they wanted to build or encamp, produced good water and wholesome sustenance.

If good water is a necessary article in places where a Fortress is intended to be built, it is no less necessary that there be plenty of it; there being nothing of so general use, or so indispensably wanted; men may make shift to live without corn, without fruits, without flesh, or without fish, and subsist on any one of them, but without water neither animal bodies themselves, or what is intended for their nourishment, can be produced or preserved.

If no spring is to be found within the body of the place, as is frequently the case in high situa-

situations, and more especially in rocky ones, cisterns must supply that defect; there is no better water than rain-water, being composed of the lightest and finest particles extracted from all other waters, and which after having been for a long time purified by the fermentation of the air, are dissolv'd by storms and fall upon the earth: Neither doth the rain fall so frequently on the plains, as on the mountains, for which reason cisterns are more to be depended upon in the latter than in the former situations; but if the sinking of wells be practicable besides, it will be best to do so in both, because as cisterns can only be replenish'd by the heavens from whence they drew their first supplies, if a siege should come in a drougthy year, water might fall short in the Fortress: Besides, it has happen'd sometimes in places besieged, that the concussion of the air and of the earth, occasion'd by the violence of the cannon has crack'd the cemented walls which should have retain'd the water.

Nor is it enough that the water be good and wholesome in itself, and in sufficient quantity, unless those in the place be assured of their enjoyment of it, and the enemy have it not in his power either to cut it off, divert its course, or corrupt it; accidents those waters are liable to which are convey'd into the town by aqueducts or other conduits from without the place. We have some examples in *Frontin* of places being obliged to surrender for want of water.

* *Servi-*

**Servilius Isauricus* took the town from whence he had his name, by diverting the course of a river which supplied the besieged with water, and obliged them to surrender by that means. *Clisthenes* of *Sicyon*, when he was besieging a town, stopt the waters of an aqueduct, and after having poison'd them with a mixture of hellebore, return'd them into their former channel; which giving the besieged the flux, obliged them to surrender. *Cesar* besieging a town in *Quercy* turn'd a water-course on one side, which from some springs supplied the place, and his archers at the same time hindering them from drawing up any out of the river which run at the foot of the town, they were forc'd to surrender. *Rabath* was taken by *David*, the besieged wanting water. The Citadel of *Athens* being besieged by one of *Sylla's* Lieutenants, was obliged to surrender upon the same account; an infinite number of other places have been lost by the same means. Situations defective in this particular are by no means to be fortified.

SECTION II.

Of the second condition of a situation.

THE second condition of a situation is that it should be of an extent proportionable to the dimensions of the Fortress intended to be built

* *Frontin*, lib. 3. cap. 7.

built on it. This is absolutely necessary, otherwise it is impossible the Fortress should answer the ends proposed in its construction.

If the situation be of so large an extent as to require a Fortress the expence of whose construction and keeping up of the works, together with that of the garrison, would exceed the Prince's revenue, such a situation is good for nothing; or if it be so confined as to admit only of a castle capable of holding a few men, when the design of the Sovereign was to put such a garrison there as might incommode an enemy's army in such a manner as not safely to be left either behind them, or on one side; in that case it ought also to be rejected.

Dry land, and mixt situations, when on an even plain have this advantage, that there you may build your Fortress as large or as little as you think proper, and regular at the same time.

Situations on plains and of the aquatick kind are sometimes of a larger, sometimes of a less extent, according to the proportion of the islands which form them.

But whatever may be their kind of situation, those on the summit of land-mountains, especially rocky ones, are generally strait, and will only admit of the building some Fort or Castle on them; such as can hold but a slender garrison, and not capable of giving an enemy much disturbance, if left behind him, or on either side.

When

142 *The safety, &c. of States,*

When the place intended to be built is to bar the entrance of a State; in order for a situation to have the condition and property necessary for that purpose, there must first be a space sufficient within the body of the place for raising ramparts and cavaliers, if the last shall be thought necessary, and to leave an interval between the houses and the works, for places of arms, and for highways leading to the ramparts, and for making new retrenchments there; for such is the fury of great guns, that whoever depends upon a single bastion for his defence, will find himself deceiv'd; while the besiegers are employ'd in beating down and destroying one work, the besieged should be erecting another behind it, and the latter be in a condition of defence the instant the besiegers shall have made their way thorough the former. There must likewise be space sufficient in the center of the place for making wells, cisterns, churches, hospitals, streets, market-place, the grand parade, magazines for victualling stores and ammunition, an arsenal, small armory, barracks for six or seven thousand men, or even more in time of war, or upon other occasions; and on the exterior side, or without the body of the place, room for those works which constitute a good fortification, as counter-guards, detach'd bastions, ditches, ravelins, counterscarps, covertways, glacis, &c.

If the place intended to be built is likewise to command an entrance into the enemy's country,
and

and to carry the war into it from thence, it must not only be large enough to contain every thing abovemention'd, but likewise to serve as a magazine for laying up such stores of victualling and ammunition there as a powerful assailing army may have occasion for, as well as for an azylum for a part of that army upon a necessity.

There are many other particulars to be taken notice of in regard to the extent of a places situation; but not to break in upon the order we propos'd to observe, we have in this Section only mention'd those which relate to such works, whether exterior or interior, as are ordinarily made; in the following Chapter we shall treat of them more at large, together with all the circumstances with which they may be accompanied.

SECTION III.

Of the third condition of a situation.

THE third condition and property is, that the situation be not subject to any commandment, but on the contrary command itself all parts of the adjacent.

Situations which have this condition in perfection, and which are above all commandments, are those upon mountains, whose fortifications

fications possess the whole summit, from whence they command the descent, and reign over the whole extent of the environs within reach of cannon shot from the works farthest advanc'd; that is to say, that there be neither rising ground, nor brow of a hill, nor cavin, nor valley, nor hollow way, nor other bottom; at least none but what may easily be fill'd up and levell'd.

The siege of a place thus situated must be of all others the most bloody on the part of the assailant, because from thence you have a view quite round the enemy's works, and he in his approaches can raise none to command those of the place; the besieger's batteries can do no hurt to the fortification, at least not from the ditch side, the place being then so much above them, the shot glance with little or no effect. He is obliged to make the parapets of his trenches very high, not to be overlook'd from the place, and those of his batteries still higher, for the cannon to be under cover when recoil'd; and after all, do what he can, he will still be overlook'd, and by those he cannot see again, because very little rampart and parapet will serve to cover them. Those within have the advantage likewise in sallying, for being always above them, and keeping the upper ground, they need never come within the reach of the besiegers, unless when secure of an advantage themselves.

We

We may rank in this list of mountain-situations those whole fortifications run down from the summit of the mountain to the foot of it, and stand likewise on the border of a plain: Such is *Old Brisac*, standing not only on the border of the *Rhine*, but on an eminence which looks as if brought thither on purpose, and collected from a whole country smooth as glass. This Fortres was formerly call'd the ear of the Empire; its form, strength and importance, and the confidence of the long resistance it would make, in case of an attack, might very well give it that name.

Situations on an even plain have the foregoing advantages in part, but not in an equal degree with the preceding ones.

Situations defective in this particular are such as stand either at the foot or on the decline of a mountain, whose summit almost always commands the inside of them. Those in a valley are still more faulty, as from the summit they may be view'd all round. Such places may be reduced by canonading only, especially if they are large towns, very populous, and their inhabitants more numerous than those of the garrison; or should the inconvenience not extend so far, it may at least be accessary to their surrendering much sooner than they ought to do, as furnishing them with a specious pretence or cloak for their own irresolution or want of zeal for their Prince's service.

146 *The safety, &c. of States,*

Any eminence or elevation of situation above the horizon of the place, or any one part of it, is called a Commandment.

Of these there are several kinds;

First, There are three, which take their names from the aspects they bear to their opposite works, as the *Front Commandment*, the *Flank Commandment*, or that of *Enfilade*, in which direction every single shot rakes the work throughout, and the *Commandment of Reverse*, which overlooks the work from behind.

All these Commandments are dangerous, but the front Command less so than the enfilading one, as in the first the parapet covers the work. *M. de Vauban* made so slight of it, as seldom to raise the parapets either of the place or cover'd way higher upon this account, unless the Command itself was exceeding high. The Commandment of Enfilade is less dangerous than that of the Reverse, as one or more traverses may shelter those within the work from the Enfilades; whereas against the Commandment of Reverse there is no other means of defence but making a double parapet.

The particular effects of cannon with regard to the distance of their objects is a circumstance concerning which all are not well agreed: Without entering into the detail of the question, which would keep us too long, we shall here give three instances of the most material difference of their effects.

The first is of their effect at about 600 toises distance from the place of Command.

The second of that at about 300 toises distance.

The third, at about 150 toises, a little more or less; that is to say, about the usual distance of battering in breach.

Of these three kinds of Commandment the former only is to be disregarded, the second will demand some attention; for tho' the commanding eminencies are too far off for the cannon to ruin the ramparts entirely, those within may be a good deal incommoded by them, especially if they overlook the reverse of the work. When *Louis XIV.* attack'd *Besançon* the Citadel was expos'd to this inconvenience, and the effect of the cannon was so considerable notwithstanding the distance that the besiegers were driven from their defences.

Commandments in regard to their height are distinguish'd into the Commandment d'*Éscharpe* and the plunging Commandment. The Commandment d'*Éscharpe* is that whose line of direction forms an angle of twenty degrees with the horizon; the plunging Commandment that which forms an angle exceeding twenty degrees.

Some Engineers distinguish these Commandments into single, double, triple, quadruple, &c. in which division of them every nine feet is esteem'd a Command.

Their difference in point of extent is best express'd by the number of cannon they are capable of containing in battery.

148 *The safety, &c. of States,*

Their matter or substance, either of solid earth, stony ground, or rock.

Lastly, in their degree of ascent, they are either practicable or impracticable; that is to say, the getting up of artillery in the latter appears an impracticable thing: 'Tis not safe trusting to difficulties of this kind, which machines may overcome; but as we every day see cannon mounted upon exceeding high towers we should rather believe the same thing practicable in regard to other eminencies, be their sides ever so steep. The Castle of *Montmelian* pass'd formerly for impregnable, because, says *Mezeray*, 'tis seated on a high rock, steep on all sides, its bastions neither to be sapp'd nor mined, its ditches cut with the edge of a chissel, and the ground all about it one entire rock, and cover'd by peaks of mountains, in appearance accessible only to the fowls of the air, so that there seem'd not the least possibility either of making trenches or raising batteries.

In the year 1600 that Fortress being attack'd by the *French*, the Duke of *Savoy*, according to the Historian, promised himself that it would hold out for six months at least, not doubting but the heart of *Brandis* the Governor was as good as his fortifications, and *Brandis* triumph'd as if already a Conqueror, thinking it utterly impossible to raise any batteries against him; but no sooner had *Rosny* found means to plant them in five or six places (as what will not industry do for reward?) but the haughty Marquis

quis supplied at once; a close conference was held, with his connivance, between their two wives (his and *Rosny's*) and his own fears increasing every hour, the fourteenth of *October* he capitulated to deliver up the place the sixteenth of *November* following, if not reliev'd by that time. This Castle was taken again by the *French* in 1693.

Before the year 1718 the *Danes* in like manner look'd upon the Fortrefs of *Frederickstadt* as impregnable, standing upon a high rocky eminence steep on all sides, and before that front where it was least so, being the only one where it can possibly be attack'd, stands Fort *Guldenleve* seated on the point of another high rock, and separated by a valley of 200 or 250 toises wide, from several other mountains equally rocky and steep; on which mountains till then they thought it absolutely impossible to raise batteries.

In the year 1677 the Marshal *de Crequi* found means to draw cannon up the steep sides of a precipice to batter the Redoubt or Fort on the summit of that mountain on the decline of which stands the Castle of *Fribourg*.

When we meet with situations which are commanded, in order to determine whether they are worth fortifying, the following particulars are to be consider'd.

First, Whether the situation be in the midst, or on the border of a plain; or at the foot, or on the decline of an eminence, or on a hill or in a valley.

150 *The safety, &c. of States,*

Secondly, How many its Commandments are? Whether a single one only? or if more, their several aspects in regard to the works they command, their distance, height, extent, substance, their ascent and ways of approach.

Thirdly, It must be consider'd whether the space between the situation and the commandment is a continued decline to the place, or an horizontal plain, or some wide valley, or a river, or both together.

In regard to which circumstances the sentiments of the most able Engineers are as follows,

If the situation is in the midst or on the border of a plain, having one or two commandments, its distance from the place of command about that of battering in breach; the Command of small height or extent, and of a soil easy to remove, so that there is a possibility of razing it without too great labour or expence; whatever the nature of the intervening space may be, the situation may be fortified.

If those commandments are of rock, impossible to be razed, but proper for the constructing some works on, and a communication is to be made betwixt them and the body of the place, it may likewise be fortified; of this kind is *Frederickstadt* in *Norway*.

Likewise, if a situation be in the midst or on the border of a plain, subject to a commandment at about the distance of 300 toises, of a height to batter *en escharpe*, and even to plunge into it, of a soil both for its extent and nature impos-

impossible to be razed, and of an ascent practicable for artillery; tho' there be no possibility of taking in that commandment by a work of any kind, the situation may be fortified, especially if there be a great river running betwixt that and the commandment, to render the approaches difficult on that side.

If the situation be at the foot of a mountain, whose highest commandment is within the distance of 300 toises, of a height to batter *en escharpe*, and to plunge into the works, and of an extent capable of containing a great number of pieces in battery, of a light soil and easy ascent, it ought not by any means to be fortified.

The objections against it are still stronger if the commandment loses itself insensibly in an even easy slope, terminating at or near the counterescarp of the place; because whatever advanced works the besieged might attempt to make during the siege, would be commanded by the works of the besiegers. The latter, says the *Chevalier de Ville*, book I. chap. 4. will have this advantage, that they may place their batteries on what height they please; if the besieged should raise any work higher than ordinary to cover themselves, the besiegers can raise their batteries proportionably, which will still command and look into the place, notwithstanding any diligence of the besieged to prevent it. These kinds of situation are more faulty than those whose Commandments are excessively high, steep, and cleft in such a man-

ner as to leave no convenient descent, because in the former the enemy has it in his power more easily to break in, and obstruct the works, to make a breach and ruin the defences, as shot fired upon a level have a greater effect than those fired from above; 'tis true, the highest Commandments can see farther into the place, and can more annoy the besieged, as they are less in a capacity of sheltering themselves.

If a situation be on the slope or declivity of a very high mountain, and consequently commanded on the side next the summit; this likewise ought not to be fortified but in case of extreme necessity. The Castle of *Sedan* is thus situated, but Marshal *Vauban* has remedied that inconvenience with all that art could supply best adapted to the occasion. Such likewise was the Castle of *Fribourg* before the summit of the mountain was taken in, by making several Forts one above the other.

If the situation be upon a hill commanded by a very high mountain, the intervening space a valley, and the Commandment distant at least 300 toises, it may be worth fortifying; but the situation would be better if a large river ran betwixt the hill and the Commandment.

If a situation be upon a high hill, rocky and steep, commanded by a mountain at a little within the distance of 300 toises, and there is a valley betwixt, it is not to be rejected; *Montmelian* is thus situated.

If

If the situation be upon a hill commanded on all sides, that is to say, encompass'd with high mountains within the distance of 300 toises, it is more faulty than those at the foot or on the decline of a mountain, and can never be well fortified; for do what you will, you can never be cover'd entirely, and on whatever side you sally the besiegers will have the advantage. The Chevalier *de Ville*, book I. part 1. chap. 4. ranks *Genoa* in the list of these situations.

He might in his time, but at present that City is surrounded with a double Fortification; the oldest and best of which just incloses the City, the second takes in the summits of all those mountains which command it.

If the situation be in a valley commanded on all sides by high mountains, whose descents extend as far as the situation, 'tis the very worst of all, and ought not to be fortified on any account whatsoever. There are some Fortresses in *Roussillon* which have this bad situation.

SECTION IV.

Of the fourth Condition.

THE fourth condition of a situation, is, that it be difficult to attack by force, and easy to defend; that is to say, the ground without it neither proper for making trenches, nor batteries, nor mines, nor any works of that kind

kind which are necessary to oblige those within to surrender. The extraordinary advantage attending such a situation is, that it frequently affords the Sovereign an opportunity of saving expence in the construction and keeping up of the works, and in the number of troops necessary to guard and defend them.

Dry land situations on an even plain, whose soil is good and easily removeable have by no means this condition; the trenches there are made with ease, a little depth of spade secures them, a little trouble makes the batteries, and they may easily be rais'd so high as to see and ruin all the defences, and demolish the buildings of the town. The ease and convenience of making these works have frequently occasion'd the attack of one place preferably to that of another.

Hermanus Hugo in his relation of the siege of *Breda*, says, that the particular advantages to be found on the spot engaged the enemy to attack it rather than any other place; for that the ground of the environs was of the proper kind for constructing works of attack, and very convenient for making the line of circumvallation. The only advantage the besieged can possibly receive from such a situation is, that if they are very strong and numerous in cavalry they may the easier make sallies on the besiegers. Notwithstanding the conveniences which such situations afford the latter, yet as they admit of giving the Fortress whatever form is thought most proper, even the most perfect, a regular

one;

one; as the goodness of the ground facilitates the making large ramparts, and raising them to any height required, the making the ditches wide and deep, the forming a good cover'd way, large and strong bastions, raising high and spacious cavaliers; in short, as they furnish the means of putting in practice all that art or industry can invent or execute for their defence; for these reasons most Engineers are for allowing their situations as good, provided they have the other conditions absolutely necessary, that is to say, good air, good water, and good food, and the second in a sufficient quantity, &c.

Situations on a plain have the condition prescribed in this Section,

First, When you cannot go six inches downwards without meeting water.

Secondly, When the environs are of a sandy soil, as generally happens near the sea-shore.

Thirdly, When the ground is full of large stones, flinty and hard, or still better if a rock unveen'd, without the least sprinkling of soil.

Situations on a broken plain partake still less of this condition than those upon an even one, as they afford the besiegers an opportunity of approaching the place nearer, and under cover.

All situations on mountains of easy declination, the soil either all earth, or a mixture of earth and small stones, have by no means this condition; but if they are all of massy stone or rock from the mountain-summit to about 100
toises

toises beyond the glacis, they are exceeding good, provided they have the other conditions. The more even and continued the surface of those rocks, and the freer from cavities, the better the situation, as the besiegers will be thereby necessitated to carry the greater quantity of materials thither to cover them in their approaches. Situations amongst rocks which shoot upwards in points, forming wells or bottoms from space to space, are not so good; because those bottoms greatly shorten the labour of the trenches, being so many small places of arms ready made, where the troops are in safety; where these are found all that is wanted is to carry materials sufficient for making a communication from one to the other, which will not need a parapet of any great thickness, as the troops are not to remain behind it, but only to pass through. These situations are very frequent in *Norway*; such is that of *Fort Guldenleve* and of *Frederickstadt*, where experience has taught us, that trenches are to be carried on almost with as much ease as on an earthy soil.

It is here necessary to observe that by a mountain of an easy declination we mean such a descent as forms an angle of about 15 degrees with the horizon; by a mean declination one that forms an angle of about 30 degrees, by a swift and rapid descent one that forms an angle of 45 degrees at most, and by the term *escarpant* or declivity, one forming an angle exceeding

ceeding 45 degrees, where it is not only impossible to carry trenches up it, but even to mount a step.

Situations on a mountain of a mean declination, if not of massy stone or rock, are even more faulty than those of an easy one, because in the former the approaches may be more boldly carried up, being less in view of the cannon of the place, and rising still under cover even to the palisade; or if cannon are not to be made use of without much difficulty, mines will answer the same purpose with greater ease.

Situations on very high mountains, and of a swift and violent descent, altho' of earth only, have this condition; as the carrying on trenches there would be a work of great difficulty from the great stones and shells the besieged might roll down upon them continually, and the great trouble they would find in getting up their artillery, which would not easily be brought to bear; and that the breach when made would always be of a very steep ascent, and consequently easy to defend; for which reason such assaults seldom succeed. Such is the situation of *Sancerre*, which was fortified formerly.

The Ancients look'd out for such situations to fortify them, because of the great trouble and difficulty they put the besiegers to in craning up their engines to apply them to the walls of the towers, such as their battering rams, their tortoise, and other military machines they had,
to

to burst and tumble down the walls, and open themselves a passage into the place. *Mezeray* says, that towards the year 995, most Castles and Fortresses were built upon the brows of mountains; that *Laon* was reckon'd one of the most important at that time, on account of its strong seat upon a mountain, being as it were the Donjon of that Royalty. It is evident that when situations of this kind are full of large stones, or an entire rock, they are still better.

Situations on mountains, or on very high hills, form'd all of one mass of stone vertically and horizontally cloven and intersected on all sides, are impregnable by force; they may likewise be very good, tho' not precipiced on all sides, especially when there is no way for the besiegers to get up their artillery, and only one narrow winding path of ascent. Fortresses of this kind are not to be approach'd by trenches; there is no such thing as ruining their defences, to mine them is impossible, being all of solid rock, or to make a practicable breach with cannon; of this kind is the Castle of *Bouillon* in *Ardenne*, *Verregola* in the territory of *Pisa*, and *Radicofani* in *Tuscany*, on the frontier side of the Ecclesiastick State.

M. Vauban had not so great an opinion of these latter situations, as of those on a morass. See what he says in his *Memoirs* of the conduct of sieges, concerning them. Places situate upon a rock altho' difficult of access are not

near

near so troublesome to attack as those on a wet morass, where there is no coming at them but by causeways; and this for several reasons.

1. Because they are generally less in themselves, have but a narrow front, and consequently little oblique command of their avenues.

2. Because their avenues are seldom or never so strait as those of a causeway made by hand.

3. If any of them happen to be so, which is a thing very rare, they are at least very short, which renders the approach more easy, and better to be sustain'd, as it aids the bringing up of the cannon.

4. That if any are of a greater length, there is always some place or opening wider than the rest, where a lodgment may be extended and batteries seated to play upon their narrow fronts, which are generally ill terrass'd, and from whence you will be able with ease to clear all obstructions in the approaches.

5. That the difficulty of getting either in or out is no less to the besieged, than that of coming at them to those who attack.

6. That those places, being generally inconsiderable, are apt to have but one avenue, in which case 40 men have it in their power to block up 30, and if they please may starve them to death.

7. That if they should have several, as they can contain but a slender garrison, they are never the more considerable.

8. That

8. That places on a morass, with which there is no communication but by causeways, altho' they have much the same inconveniencies, 'tis not in a manner so disadvantageous, because they have usually a greater number of avenues, and the morasses are never so inaccessible but that either boats or foot-men may slip across into the place.

Situations in valleys are difficult of attack by force, when there is no opening the trenches in the ground without the works, but with great difficulty; being either a mixture of flinty hard stones, or all of solid rock.

Aquatick maritime situations (as those on an Island) in general are difficult of attack by force, provided that if they lie low they are at such a distance from the land, as not to be within the reach of a breach battery from thence; or if they are within that distance, are on a rock so eminent and steep, that the breach can never be made practicable: Both these kinds of situations are good, but the second infinitely better than the first, as both in one and t'other the troops must be carried to the assault in flat-bottom'd boats.

The great difficulty in the attack of the former, is the making breach with batteries upon the water, that is to say, with cannon on boats or floats; this, tho' troublesome, is not impracticable, provided you can get a number on board superior to those in the place; in the second case, the situation being supposed to be very high

high and steep, the breach, tho' easy to be made, is never to be made practicable; so that you may hope to carry the former as soon as the breach is made, but must never expect to succeed in the latter, unless the besieged are destitute of provision, or surrender through ignorance of their own security.

Low aquatick maritime situations to be good, must be of no greater extent than for the whole spot to be covered with the Fortifications, or if any part be left out, it must be so hemm'd in betwixt the works and the water, that the ordinary Garrison protected by the fire of those works may be able themselves alone to oppose and prevent any debarkment of the enemy, or their setting one foot a-ground; if that is not the case, or the space left out sufficient to contain a small army, it will be necessary in war-time to keep such a body of troops there as may effectually prevent any descent, and thus the situation will be no more advantageous than if it were a plain on the Continent; for when once the enemy has got possession of the ground, and has settled himself there, he will form his attack in the same manner as at the siege of a dry-land situation, and will have the convenience of the water besides to bring him whatever he has occasion for.

When situations are very high, steep-sided, surrounded with the sea, and yet so near the shore as to be within reach of a breach battery from thence; not to be liable to be

L

taken,

taken, the arm of the sea which separates them from the main-land must be of such a depth that there be no possibility of coming at them by a dyke or causeway made there for that purpose; such a one as was made by *Alexander at Tyre*, according to *Quintus Curtius*, Lib. I.

Amongst these aquatick Maritime situations, some are to be found with such singular circumstances as render them impregnable; as *Venice*, which it is impossible to come at either by sea or land: it is situated in the midst and at the extremity of the *Adriatick* sea, on several small islands, which have been form'd in a long tract of time by the slime of the sea, and are separated from one another only by little canals; its distance from the Continent is about four miles; there is no ground about it but what is covered with buildings. This great city has neither walls nor ramparts, but is beaten by the waves on all sides, standing firm on its piles as if seated on a rock; the water which flows round it is of little depth, for which reason, notwithstanding its extent, it goes by no other name at *Venice* but that of the Lake.

On the east side of the harbour lie several little Islands which cover it, and before you arrive there you are obliged to pass by several Forts which stand in the sea; nor would any vessel ever find the way, did not the people themselves show them the passages, which change from time to time with the shifting sands,

sands. Its great misfortune is, that the depth of the Lagunes has been decreasing for several years past, notwithstanding all the diligence used to prevent it, such as mills and other machines for throwing out the mud and slime which is constantly gathering, and which appears above water in some places when the sea is quite low.

They have turn'd on one side the mouth of the *Brenta*, and of some other rivers, to prevent their bringing soil and sand into the Lake, least the earth should get the upper-hand of the water again at last, as it has done at *Ravenna*, which would be most prejudicial to *Venice*, whose strength and security consists wholly in her situation.

If it ought to be the incessant care of that City to keep up the waters which surround her just so high as that she may never more join the Continent, it would be by no means for her advantage to have those waters every where of a general and uniform depth; because while things continue nearly in their present state it is next to impossible to attack *Venice* either by sea or land. 'Tis to this advantageous situation, according to Historians and Politicians, that famous City owes its establishment, preservation and aggrandisement. See what *Machiavel* says in his Political Discourses. 'The origin of *Venice* is owing to an assembly of diverse nations, who had retreated into several little Islands lying at the extremity of the *Adria-*

164 *The safety, &c. of States,*

tick Gulph, for shelter from the wars which
 raged in *Italy* (after the declension of the
Roman Empire) by the frequent irruptions of
 the Barbarians. These numerous Refugees
 having no particular Prince to govern them,
 began by mutual agreement to submit to such
 laws as seem'd best suited to their own pre-
 servation. Things succeeded with them ac-
 cordingly, the advantage of their situation
 procuring them a long repose; that sea having
 no outlet, nor the Barbarians any ships to
 disturb them; and in this manner from so
 minute an origin they have rais'd themselves
 to that pitch of grandeur they enjoy at pre-
 sent. Another Author says she owes her rise
 to the *Paduans*, who about the year 421 re-
 tired into the Lagunes of the *Adriatick*, for fear
 of the *Goths*, where lay a number of small
 Islands inhabited only by fishermen, the chief
 of which was called *Rivalta*, where the *Pa-
 duans* first settled themselves; but *Attila* King
 of the *Huns* having destroyed *Aquila*, *Altino*,
Concordia, *Odezxo* and *Padua*, the people of
 those towns retired likewise into the Islands in
 the year 453, and there fix'd themselves; so
 that it is from thence we should properly date
 the founding of that City, which afterwards
 gradually increased till it became the Capital
 of a powerful Republick.

Mezeray says, that in the year 452 the
 terror of the arms of *Attila*, after he had
 taken *Aquila*, driving all those people out of
 their

their country, some bands of them threw
 themselves into the Isle of *Rialto*, and other
 neighbouring Islands, who there fixing their
 habitations, became the first founders of that
 noble State. That Historian says afterwards,
 that in the year 305 the city of *Venice* was
 not as then built: And that the seventy-two
 Islands which compose it, with the country
 and towns upon the borders of the Gulph,
 were govern'd by two Tribunes, whose power
 were equal to that of the Duke. Their names
Beat and *Obelier*. He adds, that in the year
 310. *Pepin* the son of *Charlemagne*, exasper-
 ated at the double-dealing of *Maurice* and
John, Dukes of *Venice*, who openly favoured
 the *Grecians*, and being desirous to re-establish
Obelier and *Beat* who had been expelled, sal-
 lied out of *Ravenna* with his fleet, and en-
 tered the lake of *Venice*. He seiz'd at once
 upon all those little Islands upon the borders
 of the Lake, and afterwards steer'd towards
 the Island of *Mamaluc*, the seat of the Duke,
 which he had abandon'd, and seiz'd on it like-
 wise; *Maurice* and his son *John* having with-
 drawn themselves into those of *Rialto* and
Olivola.

But according to the *Venetian* Authors, that
 Prince attempting to attack those Islands with
 his flat-bottoms, whilst the Duke's army was
 defending them, it happen'd that for want of
 being acquainted with the depths and shoals his
 fleet ran a-ground; where great numbers of the

166 *The safety, &c. of States,*

French were kill'd or stifled in the mud; and himself, who had made a descent on *Mamaluc* with the least party of his troops, retired in great confusion to *Ravenna*, sending away *Ober* and *Valentin*, who had unadvisedly engaged him in the enterprise,

'Tis about 300 years since the *Genoese* met with the same reception.

In that Island of *Rialto* a palace for the Duke was built soon afterwards, and another in *Dio* for the Bishop, and those several little Islands in time had a communication made with each other by bridges, all which together compose the city of *Venice*, so renown'd for its famous situation, and so much more for its wisdom and conduct.

Situations upon a Lake are good against attacks of Force, provided they have the principal conditions already said to be necessary in those upon the sea, as *Mantua*, which is surrounded by a Lake on all sides, and is at the extent of cannon shot or farther from the shore.

Situations in the midst of a great river are in like manner good, provided that if they lie low, the branch of the river exceeds the distance of battering in breach; otherwise by raising batteries on the opposite shores the defences might be ruin'd and the place laid open, or Cavaliers rais'd to command the inside, and when the breach is made, the troops go in flat-bottom boats to the assault. It is likewise necessary that there be no possibility of diverting the course of
the

the river, nor the Island liable to be flooded, or its fortifications damaged by any occasional swell of the water, in which last case the keeping up of the works would be an endless expence. If these Situations were upon high rocks and precipiced on every side, tho' within cannon shot from the shore, they would be good notwithstanding; as *Rochemaure* and *Chateau d'Ais*, which both stand in the midst of the *Rhone*.

Amongst the common or mixt Situations many are difficult of attack by force; as those standing on the brink of the sea, whose flux at times covers the ground where the attack should be form'd; as *St. Michael* in *Bretaigne*, which stands on a mass of inaccessible rock on the sea shore, where at high sea it is environ'd all around with water, at low sea is a bare strand; so that 'tis neither to be attack'd by land nor water, the rock on that side is so steep.

Situations on Peninsula's in the sea are also difficult of attack by force, when they are not to be come at but on a narrow front, well fortified, and not to be insulted by an enemy; that is to say, not without difficulty accessible. Such situations are as good as any whatsoever, provided their extent of water exceeds a cannon shot from the shore, and their communication with the continent is narrow and strait; in this manner stands *Portoferara*, for the most part surrounded by the sea, and separated by an artificial bridge from the land: In this number

we may place *Valetta*, a town of the Island of *Malta*, whose communication with the *Terra firma* is by a space of rock 360 toises wide in front, where they have unskillfully heap'd work upon work, many of which might be more usefully employ'd in places at present neglected, and which deserve some attention. One half of those works in the front, on a spot the most favourable for an attack, would put a skilfull and experienc'd Engineer to a stand, before he engaged with them.

Peninsula-situations upon the borders of a Lake are likewise very good; such is *Orbitello* belonging to the State of *Sienna*, standing in the midst of a lake, and join'd to the continent by a narrow isthmus only, the only way by which it can be attack'd.

Peninsula-situations on the shore of a great river are like those on the border of a lake.

A mixt situation of the maritime kind, where there is an efflux and reflux is difficult to be attack'd by force, when the country all around it being a flat and lower than the surface of the high sea, it may be overflowed either by cutting the dykes which sustain the water, or by sluices made for that purpose. There are several maritime towns in the *Low Countries*, which are reckon'd very strong ones on account of this circumstance only.

A mixt situation standing on a river side, or through which a river passes, is difficult of attack by force,

First,

First, When having a flat country all about it, lying lower than the bed of the river, and without any outlet, by making several cuts in the banks the waters may be thrown upon those parts. These kinds of situation are very rare; nature alone cannot form them without the assistance of human industry.

Secondly, When those environs lye lower than the surface of the river, a part of it may be drawn off to overflow them.

Thirdly, When those environs lye a little higher than the surface of the river, by making sluices secur'd from the enemy, the course of the water may be stopp'd, and the environs overflow'd.

For these inundations to be perfect, the channel thorough which they are to be conducted on their return to their bed, whether natural or artificial, must be very high bank'd, and of a soil excessively difficult to cut, that the attempt may be almost impracticable, at least a work of considerable time and expence. Situations of this kind are not common any more than the two preceding ones, but are extremely advantageous; because as those parts which are cover'd by the water require but little fortification, the greater expence may be afforded in fortifying the rest.

Situations whose inundations are liable to be drain'd are sometimes good notwithstanding, as

First, When the head of the drain may be secur'd by making some very strong work there.

Secondly,

Secondly, When the inundation itself is of such a depth and extent as to require a long time for its discharge.

Thirdly, When the river may replace the water faster than it is carried off by the drain.

Fourthly, When the inundation is capable of being drawn off in part only, and a sufficient quantity of water is left behind to render an attack extremely difficult.

Fifthly, When tho' the whole may be drain'd, the bottom is so foul that it would be a work of vast labour and difficulty to carry on an attack there.

On the other hand, a situation on a river side, or thorough which a river passes, is of no kind of value when it is in the power of an enemy either by opening a dyke, or stopping the course of the water, to drown the buildings and the works of the place. *The Lacedemonians*, says *Frontin*, made themselves masters of a town by carrying a dyke across a river which ran through the midst of it, by which means they rais'd the water so high that it sapp'd the foundations of the houses and the walls of the place.*

Dogen reports, that the town of *Brunswick* being attack'd; and the besiegers having lost all hopes of taking it by force, they bethought themselves of making a dam across the *Onacre* to stop it, and overflow the City; and the

* Lib. II. cap. 13.

event would have answered their purpose, but that the dyke happening to give way, the river return'd into its ordinary bed.

A situation travers'd by a river, tho' otherwise ever so good, is good for nothing if there is a possibility of diverting the course of that river, and the bed affords an easy ground for an attack. ' *Alexander*, when he besieg'd *Babylon*, which is parted in two by the *Euphrates*, took the town by means of the river only; which he laid quite dry, by giving a new course to the water. 'Tis said *Semiramis* had done the same thing before him.

A common situation on a river is difficult of attack by force where the prevalence of certain seasons may interrupt the measures of the besiegers; as when 'tis environ'd with rivers, brooks, or torrents, which after heavy rains overflow their banks, and lay the environs under water. When situations of this kind are to be attack'd, it is absolutely necessary to consult the seasons on the occasion, and take the proper time for doing it. The year 1647, the Duke of *Modena*, General of the *French* army in *Italy*, was obliged to raise the siege of *Cremona*, having undertaken it in too advanc'd a season for a country where the rains setting in betimes overflow the rivers, and make the ways impassable for convoys.

The town of *Graves* 'tis said, is only to be attack'd in the summer season, because from the latter

latter end of *August* to the beginning of the spring the environs are all cover'd with water and inaccessible, even those places where the besieging army must necessarily encamp.

Were *Perpignan* to be besieged at any other time, they must run the hazard of being forc'd to raise the siege, for the torrents which run down from the mountains upon the first rains in *Autumn* swell the river *Latet* so high, that it overflows its banks, and drowns a part of the environs of that city. The same thing commonly happens in winter and in spring.

On the contrary * *Coni* in *Piedmont* is only to be attack'd in winter, because of its high situation and being environ'd with two torrents, which sometimes in the other seasons, especially in the great heats of summer, are swoln to such a degree, that the valley underneath is cover'd with water, and that with so rapid a current there is no setting up any bridge to pass.

A common situation on a river is difficult of attack by force, when there is an opportunity of making the ditches of the place very deep and well flank'd, and those may either be fill'd with water or turn'd dry upon occasion: This may be put in practice when the bed of the river from its first entrance to its going off from the town lies on a very considerable descent; for by making one sluice at the river's entrance,

* *Chev. de Ville*, liv. II. part. 2. chap. 13.

another

another something higher on the side of its communication with the ditches, and a third in the ditch itself, opposite to where the river goes off from the town; then shutting the upper sluice of the river, and opening that of its communication with the ditch, the ditches will be fill'd with water; and by shutting the upper ditch sluice and opening the lower, you may lay them dry again: or, by keeping the sluice of the river shut, and leaving open those of the ditches, the river will take its course through the ditches, and you may have a constant current of water.

These large currents or effluxes of water in the ditches are of excellent use and defend admirably well the passage of the ditch; but for this purpose they must receive their supplies from plentiful rivers, for if they draw them from inundations of great extent, and which have been a long time form'd, it may so happen that after opening the sluices which sustain'd them, you may find it difficult to shut them again, in which case the besiegers need only desist from their attempt till such time as the reservoir shall have entirely emptied itself.

This inconvenience however may be remedied by making several small vents, and not opening them all at once; in which case likewise it will be easier to shut them again, if you find the enemy disposed to expect such event.

As to any other resources of water retain'd for this purpose of being let loose into the ditch;
when

when their product is not very considerable, it happens that in passing through several sluices in a direct line, the torrent they form is quickly gone; or if in order to lengthen it they are made to pass thorough one sluice only, they are no sooner thro' the gate but meeting with a larger expanse of water they lose their activity, and are of no farther effect to the purpose intended of obstructing the passage of the ditch, or carrying away the works made there by the enemy. To render them capable of this effect, a third sluice must be made as was said before; to wit, at the return of the water of the ditch into the bed of the river, by means of which the ditch may be kept quite full till the enemy has compleated his works for the passage, and which being then open'd will carry all away with the torrent.

These situations are good when at the time of an attack they are in such skillfull hands as know how to make the best use of them, but in our days we have seldom seen the besieged reaping those full advantages from them of which the places themselves were capable.

The year 1697, the passage of the ditch of *Asb* might have been attended with very great difficulty, if the besieged had but known how to make use of those advantages which were to be found upon the spot; that vast body of water form'd by the inundation of the upper *Dender*, might have been sent down upon us with such torrents through the sluice, when the ditch was full, and we busy about our passage, as must

have

have broke down and carried away all our bridges, had the use of it been in skilfull hands.

To know how to avail one's self in the best manner of these advantages in a situation, as well as of inundations, is an art and study of itself, requiring a particular application, and not only that but a perfect knowledge of the level of the ground.

Situations on a morass are difficult of attack by force, provided they are not to be drain'd by any canal made by the besiegers, or that some Fort may be built to prevent it. The attack of places on such a situation is difficult because to open the trenches in a morass;

First, The earth and the rest of the materials must be fetch'd from far, as was done heretofore at the siege of *Bolduc*, and which is not to be done without abundance of labour, expence, and the loss of many people.

Secondly, There is no getting up artillery thither to raze the defences, particularly the flanks, which makes the passing of the ditch almost impossible.

Thirdly, The making batteries is a work of great difficulty, and there is no such thing as making mines.

Philipsburg in the *Palatinate*, *La Fere*, *Peronne* in *Picardy*, *Marsal* in *Lorraine*, *Coevorden* in *Over-ysse*, &c. are thus situated; the latter of which passes at present for one of the strongest in *Europe*.

Their

Their disadvantage with regard to an attack is, that in a cold country they are liable to be surpris'd in time of frost, as *Coevorden* was in the year 1673: This defect may be remedied by palisading the place all around, and keeping the ice constantly broke in the middle of the ditches.

M. Vauban prefers this kind of situation to one upon a very high rock.* Places surrounded with water, or with a morass with a watery surface, such as are not to be come at, but by narrow causeways, and have but little earth about them, are beyond dispute, of all others the most difficult to attack, the rather as,

First, You are cross'd and involv'd on all sides by the fires of the place.

Secondly, You can neither extend to the right nor to the left.

Thirdly, You are forc'd to be continually enfiladed.

Fourthly, The seating your batteries is a work of abundance of difficulty.

Fifthly, They are of very little effect, and hard to be maintain'd, against all the oblique fires of the place.

Sixthly, Because it is an easy matter to give a much greater extent of front to works ready made and prepared before-hand than can be given to new ones advanc'd against them; and the former having before taken all the advantages of situation, if the besieged are as resolute as they

* *Memoires manuscrit sur la conduite des sieges.*

they ought to be in their defence, the besiegers will not be able to advance one step.

So that if there are such things as impregnable places, in all appearance their situation must be like those we are now speaking of; others tho' never so lofty and even seated upon a rock, tho' of difficult access are not near so troublesome.

Mixt situations shut up and bounded by canals on all sides have likewise their difficulties when attack'd by force, and consequently those which are surrounded partly by canals and partly by morasses; as *Ferrara*, which on the side of *Bologna* has great morasses, and on the side of *Venice* large canals, the works of art made by turning the waters of the *Po*.

SECTION V.

Of the fifth Condition.

THE fifth condition of a situation is, not to be besieg'd without much difficulty; this is the case, when accompanied with the advantageous circumstances following,

First, When it is a hard matter to prevent its receiving succours.

Secondly, When it is equally difficult to prevent a part, or the whole garrison from sal-lying.

M

Thirldly,

Thirdly, When the besieging army must be hard put to it to get every thing necessary for their subsistence during the siege.

The first of these three circumstances is absolutely necessary, because all Fortresses, tho' never so strong must fall into the hands of a powerful enemy at last, if they cannot receive succours from their Sovereign.

Succours are either particular or general.

Particular succours are such things as the besieged stand most in need of (as men, arms, ammunition, provisions, &c.) to prolong the defence, and repulse the enemy.

General succours, are the marching such an army thither, as may be able to give battle to the besiegers, and force them to raise the siege.

We shall now proceed in the first place to speak of the situations most convenient for throwing particular succours into them, and afterwards of the general ones.

Of dry-land situations those upon an even plain are easily to be succour'd on all sides, because in order to take up their quarters out of the reach of cannon-shot from the place, the besieger's line must be greatly extended, and consequently their quarters either weakly guarded, or at a greater distance from each other.

Situations on a broken plain are, for this reason, not so easily succour'd, as the besieging army under favour of the rising grounds, brows of hills, and hollow bottoms, have an opportunity of drawing very near the place with
their

their quarters, and of lying but at a small distance from each other, which consequently makes it difficult for succours to pass betwixt them.

Places situate upon a mountain of an easy declension in the midst of an even plain are more easily succour'd than those standing on the plain itself, because the besieging army, not to be disturb'd by the cannon of the place, must take up their quarters at a still greater distance than the former, by which means they become farther separated from each other, and consequently give an easier opportunity for succours to slip betwixt any two of them into the place.

It is very difficult throwing succours into places situate upon mountains, or in mountainous countries, as the enemy can easily draw near the place with their quarters; as the succours cannot easily pass over those mountains, and the besiegers may easily secure the passes by keeping a good guard in them.

There is no throwing succours into Places situate upon steep rocks without abundance of trouble, as their entrances being but few they are easily block'd up; for which reason those places are easily taken by famine.

Of aquatick situations, those in the midst of the sea, at about half or three quarters of a league's distance from the land, seated on a rock or small island, with a good port and easy entrance, have great convenience of receiving

180 *The safety, &c. of States,*

succours; because light sailing vessels first fetching the wind, and then with all their canvas spread, stretching for the port, it would be a very difficult matter for the strongest fleet of an enemy to intercept them.

Situations in the midst of a great Lake partake of this advantage, but in a less degree than the former; as the succours must come by land to the lake side, and there have vessels ready, sent from the place to receive them, or the besieging army not masters of all the borders: In general, succours are not so easily got in there as into those standing in the sea; for which reason there is a necessity of always keeping up a good garrison in them, with store of provisions.

Situations in the midst of a large river are likewise easily to be succour'd, provided the enemy is not absolutely master of both shores, or that if he is so he cannot make other Fortresses above them to cut off the communication by water.

Common or mixt situations are easily to be succour'd, when standing on the sea shore with a good port to them; as to form such a siege both an army and a fleet will be necessary, and therefore if not by land they may at least be succour'd by sea, supposing the harbour secure and spacious. Places so situate can hardly be so closely besieged but that sometime during the course of the siege they may beat off the enemies fleet with their artillery, and give opportunity

portunity for a few barks to get in with refreshments; it was by means of this advantage that *Ostend* formerly sustain'd a siege of three years and seventy-eight days.

The Arch-duke began the siege the fifth of *July* in the year 1600, the famous *Ambrose Spinola* put an end to it the twentieth of *September* 1604, having the honour to reduce that place to capitulate. It had that advantage of being capable of receiving succours by sea at any time; so that as soon as the garrison was fatigued, it was sent out and a fresh one taken into the place; by this means the besieged were enabled to dispute every inch of the ground, and did not surrender till they had not earth left to cover them.

At the siege of *Candy* it was not in the power of the *Turks* to prevent the town's receiving succours continually. When a situation of this kind stands upon high steep rocks, a better need not be desired, provided it has the other necessary conditions. We forgot to take notice that the entrance of the harbour must be wide and deep, that it may not be in the power of the enemy to stop it up, either by sinking ships there, or by making a dyke across it, as *Louis XIII.* did at *Rochelle*.

Situations on the border of a great lake have this advantage in part only, not in the same degree as the preceding ones.

If a common situation be on the border of a great rapid river, as the *Po*, the *Rhine*, the

Danube, &c. it will have some small share only of this advantage; because a powerful and skillful enemy by throwing two bridges over the river one above and the other below, may block up the passage and prevent the arrival of any succours: According to the relater of the siege of *Breda* the besiegers by some means of this kind cut off all succours from that garrison both of ammunition and provisions.

The year 1676, *Philipsburg* being besieged by the Imperialists could never receive any succours, the besiegers having used the same precautions as were taken at *Breda*.

If such situations give the besieged great advantages in the article of receiving succours, they are no less favourable to the besiegers in affording them an easy conveyance for necessities of all kinds both for the subsistence of their army, and for the carrying on of their attacks, which counterballances the advantages of the other side; But when those in the place are such absolute masters of the rivers that the others cannot cut off their communication these situations are extremely good; such are those of *Bommell, Bois-le-duc, Bergen-op-zome, &c.*

As to situations upon inundations form'd by several small rivers, 'tis difficult throwing succours into them, unless either the inundation be of a small extent and the whole fordable, or else so deep as for boats to pass, and of those a sufficient number in the place; in which case, the more extensive the inundation the easier the
 oppor.

opportunity for the succours, as the line of circumvallation must become thereby more extensive, and consequently either a great number of troops required to form the line compleat, or the line more weakly guarded, and by that means an opening given for succours to pass; such would be the situation of the environs of *St. Omers* on the side next *Flanders* if *Waten* sluice were secured by some good Fort.

'Tis exceeding difficult throwing succours into places on a marshy situation, because they have seldom more than one or two narrow ways of approach, which may easily be stopt up by a small Fort or two; they are likewise easily to be taken by famine, and by a very small number, unless the morass be passable.

'Tis alike difficult throwing succours into a place whose environs are intersected by large canals.

'Tis easy raising the siege of a place when standing in a flat country, and still easier when upon an eminence in the midst of a large even plain, where the besieging army to encamp out of the reach of cannon shot are obliged to extend their line of circumvallation to an extraordinary degree, and have no opportunity of contracting it.

On the other hand 'tis difficult to raise the siege of a place, when situate upon a broken plain, where the besieging army can draw very near to straiten it with their quarters; or on some advantageous rising ground, having castles, hollow ways, or deep tracts worn by tor-

184 *The safety, &c. of States,*

rents from the mountains, before it; which the army of succours cannot pass without falling into disorder.

It is easy raising the siege of a place when surrounded by high mountains just within the reach of cannon shot, and which oblige the besiegers to carry their circumvallation a great way farther off; or when situated in such a manner as not to admit of that line being carried on upon the highest eminencies, by which means the army of succours may always command the besieger's lines; but when this circumstance is to be met with in so high a degree as at *Flich*, a town of *Catalonia* situate upon the *Eber*, such places become almost impregnable: That river forms a very strait Peninsula, where the Fortification stands, which afterwards extends itself by small degrees till it forms a cape of a small *French* league in circumference, bounded on its extremity by pretty high mountains, but which are commanded by others still higher than themselves, which last are almost all entirely rock; just opposite to the fortification the mountains fall off from the river in such a manner as to make it absolutely impracticable the carrying a line of circumvallation along their summits, both in regard to the vastness of the extent, making at least five or six *French* leagues in circumference, as because it would be perpetually commanded all around, and that almost the whole must be made of earth carried thither for that purpose. The siege of a place like this ought

ought never to be resolved on, unless you happen to find it entirely unprovided, and may expect to carry the place in a few days, or are yourself so absolutely master of the field, as to be assured no army can possibly come to it's relief in six months time. In general, Places situate on mountains are easily to be succour'd, when round the camp of the besiegers there are commandments on commandments, in such a manner, as to render the carrying on the line there a work of infinite labour, and requiring a proportionable number of troops to defend it.

On the other hand, the difficulty is next to an impossibility of raising the siege of a place situate in the mountains, when in order to march to attack the Besiegers in their Camp, you must unavoidably pass through narrow defiles, over skirts of mountains, and through vallies, which the besiegers may guard with small numbers, and defend with great advantage. Such is the situation of the environs of *Nice* on the side next *Piedmont*.

* 'Tis easy raising the siege of a place, when
' there is a meeting of several great rivers near
' it, by which means the assailant's quarters be-
' come widely separated, and their communica-
' tion with each other very difficult; more ef-
' pecially if those rivers are subject to great floods,
' such as may carry away their bridges, or the
' ground marshy all along their camp. The si-
tuation

• *Attaque des places, par le Chevalier de la Valliere.*

tuation of *Strasburg* is very much of this kind, for which reason to form properly the siege of that great city, the besieging army ought to be at least double the army of succours.

On the contrary, it is difficult raising the siege of a place, when the besiegers camp is covered by great rivers, brooks not fordable, or whose banks are very steep on either side. The situation of the environs of *St. Omers* on the side next *Artois* is of this kind.

'Tis easy raising the siege of a place when covered with morasses or inundations of a large extent, such as oblige the besiegers to form a considerable circumvallation, and to have troops in proportion to defend it.

'Tis difficult to raise the siege of a place, where the besiegers have before their camp morasses of a great extent, or large canals, woods and defiles where it would be impossible for an army of succours to pass and force their way, because of the small numbers required to oppose them.

'Tis also difficult to raise the siege of a place, when the besiegers, by damming a river, can fill the ditches of their line with water, and form an inundation in its front. According to *Boxhorvius* who has given us an account of the last siege of *Breda*, it was this circumstance which chiefly contributed to the success of that siege, because the dyke being enlarged, and the morass stopt up, the waters overflowing not only fill'd all the ditches round about the

the camp, but overspread many parts of the country.

2dly, The necessity is not greater of a place's being in a capacity of receiving succours, than that of their garrisons being at liberty to sally upon occasion, either in part or the whole, with foot or horse; without which a place can be of no farther consequence than in regard to its self only. A small number may block it up; the enemy can at any time prevent the garrison making incursions, or pillaging his country, but may himself go and ravage the environs with impunity as often as he pleases. He can prevent those in the place sending any convoy or succours of any kind, either to the army or to other places. And in time of siege, they can neither sally to obstruct the enemy's works, nor to favour those who come to their relief. And whether the enemy chooses to approach the place, or to leave it on either side, or behind him, be the garrison ever so strong, he can with great ease to himself prevent their giving his army the least disturbance.

'Tis easy for the garrison of a place to sally when situate in the midst of a large plain, or upon an eminence of easy descent, with a level country all around. These two are the most favourable situations for the garrison's sallying upon any occasion.

Places situate on an Island in the midst of the sea, or on a Lake, afford this convenience to their garrisons, provided they have good
Ports,

Ports, from whence to make excursions upon the sea with armed vessels, to interrupt the navigation of their enemies, or prevent their entrance of the neighbouring rivers, and by these means to transport their own garrisons where they think proper. Such places, however, are better situated for their own defence than for the attack of others.

Places situate on the Sea-shore, and likewise those on a Peninsula, have this advantage two ways. First, by land, if the country is an even plain, or if situate upon eminence, with a gentle easy decline, and a flat country at the foot of it; Secondly, by Sea, if they have secure harbours. In general, all situations which easily admit of succours, have the same ease and convenience for their garrison's rallying.

3dly, 'Tis a great advantage to a place, when the army of the besiegers must be hard put to it to furnish themselves with necessaries for carrying on their works, and for their own subsistence during the siege. This difficulty may arise five several ways.

First, When the enemy has no place for fixing his Magazins, nor any large enough to hold all the stores necessary to form a siege. *Frederickstadt* and *Frederickshall* on the Frontiers of *Norway*, had this advantage. When *Charles XII.* King of *Sweden* wanted to attack the latter in the year 1708, he was obliged, in the first place, to fortify *Stromstat*, as well as its situation would permit, to establish his maga-

by the means of Fortresses. 189

ziris there. *Sallust* ranks *Capsa* and *Thala* towns of *Numidia* in the list of exceeding strong places, because standing in the midst of deserts.

2dly, When an enemy would find it very difficult to bring up his convoys, either through the badness of the roads, or the long way they have to come. This is a difficulty which attends all the places the *French King* has amongst the *Alps*. It would be found at *Sedan* likewise, for the enemy not being masters of the *Meuse*, would be obliged to bring their convoys by land a-cross the Forrest of *Arden*, a country all of wood and mountains, and where the roads are in many places impassable. On the other hand, Places situate on the Sea-shore, or on a Lake, River or Canal, of which the besiegers are masters, are extremely convenient for transporting thither all the necessaries for a siege, or for the subsistence of an army.

3dly, When no forrage is to be had in the environs of the place. Several of those amongst the *Alps* and *Pyrennees* have this advantage.

4thly, When there is no wood to be got, either for dressing the army's provisions, or constructing their works. If at *Malta* the precaution had been taken of cutting down all the wood there, and carrying it into the place, the besiegers could not have continued long before it, unless they had taken measures beforehand for supplying themselves elsewhere. On the other hand,

hand, 'tis a great defect in a situation to have forests very near it, and for the country round about to afford great plenty of forrage. These two disadvantages in a situation, have sometimes induced Generals to besiege places they would not otherwise have undertaken; which was the case of *Breda*, according to *Hermanus Hugo*.

5thly, When there is not to be found in the neighbourhood a sufficient quantity of water for the use of the army. *Philipville*, betwixt the *Sambre* and the *Meuse* is said to have this advantage. The year 1559, *Henry II.* could not besiege *Bapaume**, because there was no water thereabouts, the inhabitants having stop't up and covered all the wells in the country. The supplement of *Cesar's Commentary* likewise furnishes us with an example of this kind. From thence, says *Hirtius* †, we drew off towards *Ossona*, a town strong both by nature and art, having this advantage besides, that there is no water to be had within two leagues of its environs; so that it seems to bid defiance to an enemy. Young *Pompey*, likewise, who had shut himself up in it, had cut down all the timber for a league and a half round, and taken it into the place, so that we were forced to go to *Munda* to look for timber for our machines.

* *Mezeray*.

† *Hirtius de Bello de Hispan.*

SECTION VI.

Of the sixth Condition.

THE sixth condition, is for the situation and its environs to be capable of furnishing the necessary materials for the construction of the fortress; that those materials be of a good kind, and have an easy manner of conveyance.

Where there is neither good earth, good sand, nor good stone, wood, nor other materials, but all those things must be had elsewhere, and brought from far with much labour and expence, the fortifying such a place ought not to be undertaken. The principal materials necessary being Earth, Free-stone, Bricks, Stone of a browner sort, Lime, Sand, &c.

The necessary quantity of these depends upon the bigness of the place, and on the breadth and height of the works which are to compose it. Earth is the most essential and necessary material, in regard to the large quantity required, then Free-stone, Brick, brown Stone, Lime and Sand, if it is intended the works should have a revetment.

In situations on a high plain, whether of a continued or broken surface, there is generally to be found a sufficient quantity of good earth for making the works, and even more than

than is wanted. It were rather to be wished, that no more were to be met with than the exact quantity only, that the besiegers might not equally partake of that advantage; good earth so much facilitating the making their lines of circum- and contravallation, as well as their approaches.

Situations on a low even plain, where in winter there is always a foot or two of water, and in Summer-time, by digging only a foot and half downwards, it follows the spade in great abundance, are preferable to the former; for tho' the construction of the works is exceeding painful and laborious, yet, on the other hand, it occasions the besiegers so much trouble and difficulty in making their trenches, batteries, and other works, as is enough to dishearten them to a degree of despair: for which reason, far from avoiding such situations, they ought to be searched after, and fortified with abundance of care.

Situations on a flinty soil, having only two or three foot of earth above, make it exceeding troublesome deepning the ditches; however as they are no less so to the besiegers in carrying on their approaches, batteries, the descent of the ditches, and in working their mines to make breach, which discourages and fatigues them excessively, they are not to be rejected if they have the other conditions; especially if there is an easy possibility of carrying off all the soil that is to be found within

within a certain distance of the place, and making the Ramparts, Cavaliers, and other works with it; by which means likewise the enemy will be deprived of it.

Situations on a soft rock, where the stone necessary for the construction of the works and buildings of the place, is to be taken out of the ditches, are likewise good. If they occasion less difficulty in the attack than the foregoing, they themselves are as little troublesome in the construction, or rather not at all so. 'Tis thus the town of *Malta* is situated.

Mountainous situations have sometimes the necessary quantity of earth, and sometimes want it; as we have already said of plains; but generally speaking, those on high rocky situations fall short in this respect: When that is the case, they cannot be well fortified, unless it is determined to have earth brought from the nearest place where it is to be found, which cannot be done, but at a very great expence; on the other hand, the inconvenience is no less to the besiegers, who will have none to cover them in their approaches.

Aquatick situations have sometimes a sufficient quantity of earth for their fortifications, and sometimes not, according as the earth or water prevails; only morassy situations almost always want it. But if the construction of their works becomes a matter of difficulty by this means, the carrying on the approaches as was said before, is no less so to the besiegers.

N

The

The best marshy situations in this respect, are such as are on a rising ground in the midst of the marsh, and of an extent just sufficient for receiving the intended Fortress.

Good materials are absolutely necessary to make a good fortification, more especially in regard to earth and lime, of which the mortar is compos'd.

There are infinite kinds of earth, as fat, stiff, clayey, marshy, muddy, spuey, slimy, sandy, gravelly, stony; of which last, likewise, there are several kinds, as that mixt with small stones or great, with soft, hard, or indifferent, flinty, &c.

For brevity's sake, we shall here speak only of the four principal ordinary kinds, to wit, the stony, sandy, marshy, and the fat stiff soil.

The worst of these is the stony, because it neither binds nor supports itself, and when parapets are made of it, the shot entering within, makes sad havock, and the stones flying about on all sides, do more execution than the bullet. 'Tis neither proper for making parapets, nor rais'd works of any kind, unless they are lined with walls throughout, for otherwise they cannot support themselves.

There is, however, one advantage attending such a soil, and that is, it puts the besiegers to difficulties to cover themselves in their approaches, who find themselves exceedingly incommoded by the stones beat out of their works
by

by the cannon of the besieged. When one is obliged to make fortifications on a soil of this kind, the earth for the parapets must be sifted, or the best veins of it pick'd out for that purpose, or good fetch'd from some other place.

A sandy soil is as bad, having no texture, and being perpetually ready to fall in: When the wall that supports it is once broken, it drills away, and runs off like water, for which reason some Naturalists have ranked it in the list of fluids. There is no making a good work with it, any more than the former, without giving it a revetment either of brick or stone. When one is under a necessity of using it, it must be mixt up with good earth if possible, and the surfaces covered every where with broad turf, to prevent the wind's blowing it away; if this sandy soil gives a good deal of trouble, in the construction of the works, in forming the ramparts, enlarging and deep'ning the ditches, in making the cover'd way, and raising cavaliers, it puts the besiegers under no less difficulty, when the place comes to be attack'd, to make their trenches, to form and raise their batteries, but above all, in making their descent of the ditch, if it is a dry one and deep. 'Tis on this account, that when necessity constrains us to make use of it, such a situation is not to be rejected; but when that is not the case, it should be let alone, if only for this reason,

that, when the wind is high, it blows that sandy surface about on all sides, ruffling it like the waves of the sea, filling up the ditches, and raising hillocks upon the glacis, and beyond it almost as high as the parapets of the place, to the great facilitating the approaches.

'Twas owing to this defect in the soil, that the *French* army took *Dunkirk* in so short a time.

The marshy soil is better than the two former, tho' itself is not good in general; because being rais'd into a rampart or parapet, when it comes to be dry, it cleaves, and there is likewise always a necessity of driving piles in the foundation. When one is obliged to fortify such places, it should be done in the heats of summer, that the earth may have more consistence.

That soil which we call fat or strong, is the best of any kind for works of fortification, because it is tractable, and binds and supports itself. If the situation is low enough to have the ditches fill'd with water, there is no occasion for giving the ramparts a revetment, unless one chooses it; and if they are to have a revetment, there is no necessity for driving piles in the foundation, nor so much as to make a drain. In earth of this kind, the cannon has very little effect, the shot not penetrating above 10 or 12 feet, and leaving only the mark of it's own entrance, buries itself, without any shock given the work. It's fault is, that it is extremely commodious for making mines.

The

The materials of which the masonry is composed are stones, brick, lime, and sand. There are many sorts of stone as well as of earth. As to the size of them, they are great, small, or middling.

By great stones we mean such as must be cut in order to be removed; by middling ones, such as are portable by a few or more hands; and by small ones, those of which a number may be carried by a single hand. The middling and the small ones are those which give least trouble in the working.

As to the place where they are to be found, some are scatter'd singly upon the surface of the earth, others taken out of it's entrails, and cut with chissels by the quarry-men. The first are of no use to build with, because having laid for a long time exposed to the sun, and the injuries of the weather on all sides, their radical moisture must be consumed, for which reason they will not bind with mortar, nor make any work of long duration.

As to their particular qualities, they are either soft, hard, indifferent hard, rock, flint, marble, brown free-stone, &c.

The softer kind have the advantage of being easily cut and manufactured for the work. Such are those white stones found in *Champagne*, and in some parts of *Picardy*, *Artois*, and *Hainault*; if they are made use of where they are under cover, as for the inside of the wall which furrounds the fortress, they will

198 *The safety, &c. of States,*

be serviceable, and last for a long time; but if used for the outside, the frost and the rains wash them away, and crumble them to dust; and when used in buildings near the sea-side, the salt air corrodes, and the very heat destroys them.

The moderately hard ones will stand the frost, because they have fewer moist and earthy particles, and more of air and fire in them than the soft ones.

Hard stones are such as will not moulder away by the severity of the frost, and are therefore of long duration; they are more capable of resisting the frost, as they have but little air or fire in their substance, but abound in moist and earthy particles, qualities proper to consolidate them to a degree beyond the power of the frost to injure them.

The word rock has various significations; sometimes it is taken for that hard and quick stone found lying in great long beds in the bowels of the earth, which serves to strengthen that elementary body in the same manner as bones the animal ones. Thus *Ovid*.

——— *lapides in viscera terrae*
Ossa reor dici.

By rock we here mean an extreme hard quick stone, very difficult to cut with the chisel; for which reason 'tis of no use for works of this kind.

Flint

Flint is a small and very hard kind of stone, which struck by iron or steel, throws out sparks of fire. This stone as it will neither cut well, nor bind with mortar, should never be made use of for the works, but in their foundations only.

* *Pliny* writes, that in some rocks were found natural flints excessively hard, yet capable of being cut into any form at pleasure, and that the *Greeks* made use of them in their buildings, in the same manner as bricks were used in other places.

Marble is a kind of stone extremely hard, solid and difficult to cut. About *Namur* and *Charlemont* is found some pretty soft, they make use of it in their buildings, and even in the works of the place.

Grais, or brown free-stone, is a kind form'd of several grains of sand glued together, by means of some earthy particles sticking in the pores betwixt them. There are of different degrees of hardness.

In some places it is used to form the falliant angles of that wall which surrounds the fortification, and is extremely good for that part of its surface which is under water.

Brick is a kind of stone made of earth baked in an oven. Walls made of it are better than those of stone, because when once the latter have received a shock from the cannon, and any one part is beaten down, upon the least firing

N 4

firing afterwards, the rest all tumbles down after it. This never happens to walls made of brick, when the mortar is good; 'tis all but one body, and the bullet only makes its hole, as is found by daily experience. The goodness of the brick depends upon the quality of the earth. White clay is the best for the purpose; that which is gravelly, flinty, or sandy, is good for nothing.

To have a right notion of the nature and property of sand, it must be observed, that the elementary earth is composed of three several substances; of mud, which is the lightest and most fruitful part; of clay, which is of a gluey nature; and sand, which is the driest and heaviest part. By means of these two properties, sand gives it solidity, and contexture, and serves as a basis to the whole, in the same manner as it does in mortar. Sand and gravel differ no more, than that gravel is a coarser kind of sand mixt with small flint stones.

Sand is to be found not only in the sea, and in rivers, but likewise in the earth. That which *Vitruvius* calls pit sand is the best of any kind for building. According to that Author, there are four sorts of it; the black, the grey, the red, and the carbuncle or flame-coloured. The worst quality sand can have, is to be earthy. The best in general, is that, says *Vitruvius*, which, in rubbing betwixt the palms of the hands, make a grating noise, which the earthy sort never does, because it has no harshness.

harshness. Another mark of good sand is, when thrown upon a white stuff and shook off again, it leaves no soil behind it. If no pit sand is to be got, the best of the gravelly kind must be sifted out, or, upon occasion, sea sand made use of. But the latter has this fault, that the mortar made of it is long a drying, and such walls as are built with it, will not bear any great load, if not built at several times; but manage it how you will, it will never do for the plaistering of ceilings. It has likewise this bad quality, that those walls which are rough cast with it, sweat perpetually from the dissolution of the salt, which sets the whole a running. But mortar made of pit sand dries presently, and walls rough cast, or ceilings plaistered with it, will last for a long time, especially if used as soon as taken out of the ground. Some builders say, that river sand is good for nothing, if what is uppermost of it is not raked off, and that earthy matter taken away, which clods all together, and makes a crust upon the surface. And that gravel, on the other hand, has no part good but the top; because what is underneath is too coarse. They likewise advise the washing the sea sand in fresh water before it is used.

Lime which is the least ingredient in building, but the most proper for binding and strengthening it, is the work of man's industry, and not the entire gift of nature, like sand.

To

To be good, according to *Vitruvius*, ' it should
 ' be made either of white stones or flints * ; it
 ' is to be observed likewise, that what is made
 ' of the smoothest and hardest stones or flints,
 ' is best for masonry, and that made of stones
 ' a little spongy, most proper for plaister-
 ' work.

There are certain countries to which nature
 ' seems to have given materials particularly
 ' proper for building some kinds of works.
 ' *Justin* tells us, † that *Semiramis* who had built
 ' the city of *Babylon*, surrounded it with a ram-
 ' part of brick-work, cemented with sand and
 ' bitumen, which is a kind of pitch that from
 ' the violent heat there bubbles out of the
 ' ground in many places.

There is a kind of powder, says *Vitruvius*, ‡
 ' found in the country of *Baia*, and in the
 ' ground about *Vesuvius*, to which nature has
 ' given a wonderful virtue ; this powder when
 ' mixt with lime, knits stones together so
 ' strongly as to form a body of an extreme du-
 ' ration, not only in ordinary buildings, but
 ' even at the bottom of the sea ; 'tis excellent
 for building moles, quays of sea-ports, or of
 rivers, and either such works as are under cover,
 or beaten by the waves of the sea.

The same Author says, there is another sort
 found in *Tuscany*, which makes the sand called
Carbunculus ; and both of these are admirable

* *Lib. II. cap. 5.* † *Lib. I.* ‡ *Lib. II. cap. 6.*

for the solidity of the masonry composed of them, only one is more proper for buildings on the shore, the other for works to be made in the sea.

In *Catalonia*, and more especially about *Barcelona*, is found an earth which alone might serve for building the walls of the body of a place; such as would be extremely solid, and capable of resisting the injuries of time.

We have spoken of the principal materials only, and those of which the largest quantities are wanted; for as to other things, when they fall short there is not so much difficulty in having them brought from far, and there are some of them, as Iron and Lead, which are hardly ever to be found on the spot.

Ease and convenience of carriage are likewise much to be desired in a situation, and are to be found when the place, whence the materials are to be had, is near at hand, and the ways level and smooth, as is usual when the situations are upon a plain; or if the place is farther off, when they may be brought either by sea, lake, river, or canals, made or to be made with ease and little expence for that purpose; but it must be remember'd, that the besiegers will reap a like benefit from that water carriage, to bring them whatever they want for the siege, supposing the water to extend as far as their own country, and to be so far navigable.

In situations on very high mountains and rocks, the carriage of materials is extremely
diffi-

difficult, and sometimes it is not without much trouble, that even provision and ammunition are brought thither.

SECTION VII.

Of the seventh Condition.

THE Seventh Condition is, that the country of the environs furnish plenty of necessaries of all kinds for life; as corn, fruits, roots and greens, fuel, forrage for the cattle, horses, &c.

Some Politicians have made it a Question, whether the most barren parts of a country ought not rather to be chosen for building towns, where men being constrain'd to get their living by their industry, would be in no danger of falling into slothfulness, would have more strength and valour for their own defence, and live with greater union amongst themselves; the poverty of a country not being the natural source of divisions amongst its inhabitants.

Thucydides seems to have been of this sentiment; he says in his first book, that the best parts of Greece were most subject to revolutions, as *Thessaly* and *Boeotia*, with the greatest part of *Peloponnesia*, *Arcadia* excepted; for that abundance which augmented their strength engender'd divisions, to the ruin of the inhabitants, and gave them up a prey to strangers; but

but the country of *Athens* had been least subject to changes, because being a light soil and producing but little, it had neither given occasion for sedition nor envy.

To reason upon this point, it must first be resolv'd whether the city intended to be built, and its dependancies is to form a State itself, or only to make a part of another's Frontier.

If that City alone is to form an entire State, we are of the same sentiment with *Macbiavel*, who is for avoiding barren places on these occasions,* the choosing which, says that Politician, would be undoubtedly the most prudent and most useful measure; if mankind was naturally inclined to be content with what they possess'd, and had no ambition of bringing their neighbours under their subjection; but that defect of human kind has brought things to this pass, that we are no longer safe than while we are powerful, and in order to become such, barren spots must be avoided, and the most fruitful ones chosen for such settlements; where only so much industry may be required as is necessary to exercise and improve our strength, to put ourselves in a condition of defence against any who should attack us, and to humble those who would oppose our aggrandisement. As to slothfulness, of which abundance is the parent, it must be remedied by laws, when it is not the na-

* *Polit. Disc.* book I. chap. I.

' natural vice of the climate; and the conduct of
 ' those wise men imitated, who inhabited a
 ' most pleasant country, and one too apt to
 ' produce a lazy race of people, ill disposed to
 ' the exercise either of valour or of virtue;
 ' Those Sages being desirous to remedy the dis-
 ' orders which the beauty of the country had
 ' produced, doubtlessly through the means of
 ' idleness, laid an inviolable injunction on all
 ' persons capable of it, to train and exercise
 ' themselves in the art of war, by means of
 ' which laws so wisely establish'd, they became
 ' a more warlike people than even the natives
 ' of wild and barren countries.'

If the city to be built is intended only to
 make a part of the frontier of a State, 'tis
 equally for its advantage, that it be placed in a
 fertile country; the rather as at this time of
 day, it is not the town inhabitants who are to
 guard and defend it, so that no inconvenience
 can arise from their luxury, in this respect.
 That fertility not only engages their own resi-
 dence, but draws a number of strangers thi-
 ther, by which means it becomes in a short
 time populous and wealthy, and enabled to pay
 the taxes imposed by the Sovereign for the re-
 pair and maintenance of the works and garriso-
 n. When threaten'd with a siege the Prince
 need be at no charge for transporting provi-
 sions thither; and if those of the place have the
 precaution to withdraw into the town what-
 ever the neighbouring country affords of that
 kind,

kind, and either to spoil or burn them, the besiegers will be able to draw no more succours from thence for the subsistence of their army, than if the town were situate in one of the most barren countries: For which reasons we hold with *Machiavel*, that the wisest course when it can possibly be pursued, is to pitch upon fertile places for the situation of all towns whatsoever, provided good laws are made, and good discipline kept up, to prevent those disorders which plenty might introduce: He produces an instance from antiquity very apt upon this occasion.

‘ *Alexander* the Great, says he, being desirous
 ‘ to build a City from a motive of vain-glory,
 ‘ an Architect named *Dinocrates* presented him
 ‘ with a plan for building one upon mount *Atbos*,
 ‘ which besides the strength of its situation had
 ‘ this singular advantage, that it was capable
 ‘ of being built in the form of a man, which
 ‘ would be something very curious, surprising,
 ‘ and worthy the greatness of its Founder.
 ‘ *Alexander* ask’d him, how it’s inhabitants
 ‘ were to be subsisted: the Architect replied,
 ‘ indeed he had not thought of that. The Prince
 ‘ smiled, and dropt his project of the mountain
 ‘ to build the City of *Alexandria* in a place
 ‘ where the fertility of the country, and the
 ‘ convenience of the sea and *Nile* together
 ‘ might invite and detain its inhabitants.

The same story is told by *Vitruvius* almost in the same manner, with this difference only, that he makes *Alexander* say, that as a child
 could

could neither receive nourishment nor growth without the nurse's milk, so the people of a city could not be supported, much less could they flourish and grow great without abundant provisions. *Lib. 2. pref.*

Situations upon Plains have the most frequently this advantage of Abundance and Fertility: it is sometimes found in the mountainous ones, but rarely amongst the very high rocky ones, unless that mass of stone on which the place stands be in the midst of a plain; such a kind of situation as *Justin* gives the town of *Dara*, which *Arsaces* King of the *Parthians* built upon the mountain *Zapportenon*; such is the situation of that place, says the Historian, as nothing can exceed either for strength or beauty: The mountain is surrounded on all sides by rocks so steep, that it wants neither men nor fortifications to defend it; and the plain all about it so fertile, that the riches of its own growth are sufficient to furnish the inhabitants with all the necessaries of life: Besides which, there are such a number of woods and springs as give a verdure to the whole country, and embellish it with retreats for the pleasures of the chase.

Tho' island-situations, or those on the sea-shore, or upon large lakes, rivers and canals, have not this advantage of fertility; yet they want nothing, from the convenience they have of importing from the most distant places all the necessaries of life; and it is owing to this circumstance rather than to any fertility of their own,

own, that *Athens* heretofore, and *Venice*, *Genoa*, and many other cities at this day, are become so considerable.

SECTION VIII.

Of the eighth Condition.

THE eighth condition is, that the situation be such as to be fortified at a small expence.

This condition doth not immediately regard the situation; 'tis sometimes to be met with in one place, sometimes in another, as they happen to be attended with certain circumstances.

Those who have wrote upon situations before me, having taken no notice of this condition, we have thought proper to speak to it, as it happens sometimes to be that which requires the chief regard.

Situations on a very low plain, where the ditches may be fill'd with water, and the soil is good, are of small expence; because there is no necessity, unless one chooses it, for giving the works a revetment; which revetment is a considerable expence, even in the countries best provided with the materials.

Situations upon mountains have no occasion for high ramparts, nor for very high parapets; but the saving in that particular is not considerable.

Situations on a soft rock, like *Malta*, which furnishes all the stone that is wanted for the works of the fortification, and likewise for the buildings, save abundance of expence; on the other hand, such as are upon flint or other stones of a very hard kind, cost a great deal in the excavation of their ditches, and if their earth falls short, still more for the carriage of such a quantity as is necessary for the parapets.

Situations upon steep rocks, inaccessible on all sides, cannot require any great expence to fortify them.

Situations surrounded with water may be fortified at a small expence, supposing them to lye very low, and their earth proper for making works; otherwise their expence will be very considerable: It is likewise necessary, if they lye in the open sea, that they be in no danger from high tides, or any extraordinary swellings; and if they are in the midst of a river, that they be secure from the effects of the violence or rapidity of its current; otherwise, there will be a necessity for raising dykes and moles, and peer-heads to break the water in both of them, which cannot be made and kept up without a considerable expence.

As to situations on the sea shore, or on lakes or rivers, those sides of them next the water are sometimes fortified with very little expence, and sometimes cost more than all the rest of the inclosure, as may be seen in many towns of the *Low Countries*.

In marshy situations, if the spot on which the place is to stand is a little higher than the morass, if there is a sufficient quantity of earth for the works, and that good in its kind, it may be fortified at a small expence: But if the situation is on a level with the morass, the earth of a bad kind, as it can scarce be otherwise, and not in a sufficient quantity for the construction of the works, the expence must be very great; as to make those works good, either the earth must be fetch'd from far, or else they must have a revetment to supply their ill consistence; and as that kind of ground is seldom good at the bottom, the bastions will sink in and go to ruin of themselves, if their walls are not set upon good pile-work, which cannot but amount to an exceeding great expence. 'Tis confidently affirmed, that the foundation of the Town-hall of *Amsterdam*, cost very near as much as the whole building beside.

The keeping up the works of such places is a vast expence, the ditches must be continually cleansing, and the earth-works continually repairing; for as fast as you raise the ramparts and parapets above they sink and expand themselves below, so that it is a work without end.

Situations of such a bizarre and singular kind, as that of *Luxembourg*, require likewise a great expence to be well fortified.

SECTION IX.

When several Situations offer, which of them ought to be preferr'd.

AMongst that infinite variety of situations in the world, there is not any particular one to be found, which has all those advantageous conditions which we have now been speaking of. Nature has done by them as by mankind, not bestow'd all her favours upon one and the same object; to some she has given beauty, to others strength and adroitness, to some vivacity in abundance, to others good sense, and hath made so equal a sortment of accomplishments and defects, that upon the nicest scrutiny of her conduct she seems to have been impartial in her distributions. The same thing may be affirm'd of her in regard to situations; those which have a good air, commonly want water; those difficult of attack by force, are often as difficult to be succour'd; and those which have good earth for their works, are generally easily to be attack'd by force.

How necessary soever it may be to fortify such situations, an Engineer ought never to accept, much less make proposals for building new Fortresses on such as we have already excluded on account of their ill qualifications.

Places

Places of this kind being absolutely incapable of a good defence.

'Tis true we see many such fortified at this day, but it must be consider'd such situations were at first chosen for their convenience of habitation only, and afterwards becoming frontier towns, necessity obliged the inhabitants to fortify them in their own defence. Whenever it is propos'd to an Engineer to fortify a place of this kind, if he is obliged to give his consent, he ought to do it in such a manner as may manifest it to be an act of his obedience only; for it is not till after a place is fortified and perfectly finish'd, that you plainly perceive the ill consequences of its defects; it requiring the skill of an Artist and great Connoisseur to discover them before they are executed: Without such precaution therefore, an Engineer runs the hazard of having that imputed to a defect in his capacity, which was merely the effect of his compliance with his duty.

An Engineer ought not only to reject all situations having material defects in them, but should endeavour as far as in him lies, that such only may be accepted, whose conditions are most suitable to the present state of his Sovereign's affairs.

When a Prince is weak, and his revenue inconsiderable, an Engineer should make it the first object of his care, that the situation be difficult of attack by force, and to be fortified and maintain'd at a small expence. I do not here

214 *The safety, &c. of States,*

make it a necessary condition, that it should be capable of a very small Fortress only, for it is very possible a place may be large, difficult of attack by force, and easy to defend, yet at the same time require but a small expence either for the construction or keeping up of its works; as those which stand on some rising ground surrounded on all sides with a morass, or on some large and level spot on the summit of a mountain with steep rocks on all sides. These two kinds of situations, tho' they may be great in their extent, are difficult of attack, easy to defend, yet require little expence either for the construction or keeping up of their works, and a very small number to guard and defend them. If nature has afforded none such throughout the Prince's dominions, and that recourse must be had to art, some low piece of ground should be chosen for the situation of such a Fortress, where the ditches may be kept full of water; because places that have dry ditches require strong garrisons for their guard.

If the Prince's revenue is considerable, his dominions of a large extent and very populous, the expensiveness of the works and numerous garrison required, are the points least to be consider'd by the Engineer; but he should make it the particular object of his care, that it be capable of sustaining so long a siege, that the Sovereign may have time to draw his troops together; and above all, that the situation be such, as to be easily succour'd, that as soon as
he

he shall have assembled his forces, he may at once march to raise the siege.

If a Prince is powerful only in a middling degree, an Engineer should direct his principal attention towards the conditions most suitable to the state of his Sovereign's affairs.

If the place to be fortified is intended to bar and defend the entrance of a State, such a situation is to be chosen as may absolutely shut up the passage, and at the same time be difficult of attack by force, and easily succour'd.

If it is built with an intention to carry war into an enemy's country, a situation should be chosen upon the high roads leading to it, such as is most convenient for transporting thither, either by waggons, horses, or barks, the victualling stores and ammunition to be laid up in the magazines of the place; but above all, the situation should be such, as not to be besieged without great difficulty; by which we mean, that it may not be in the power of a handful of the enemy to prevent the garrison from falling, or from conducting the necessary convoys to their own army. Lastly, an Engineer in choosing the situation of a Fortress ought to have continually before his eyes the principal end for which it is built, and both the present and future state of his Sovereign's affairs.



CHAP. VI.

Of the Extent of Fortresses.

IN the three preceding Chapters we have spoken of those particular places where the Fortresses ought to stand, we shall now proceed to examine the size of them, whether 'tis most proper to make them large or small, either of which have their advantages and disadvantages.

The disadvantages of great ones are, their requiring a numerous garrison both for their guard in time of peace, and for their defence in time of war, consequently a greater quantity of provision and ammunition; and as their attacks may be very distant from one another, the greater must be the fatigue and difficulty in their defences.

Their advantages are, that they are capable of being fortified in a better manner, as their angles being more open, their bastions may be made so much the larger and stronger, and partake more of the curtain's defence. When attack'd, they require greater armies to block them up; and consequently, are themselves easier succour'd than lesser places; their garrisons are not so disquieted with the shells during a siege; they can make better shift to get provisions,

sions, medicines, nay even stores of war, and materials for the repairing of their works.

In speaking of the advantages and disadvantages of large places, we have spoken, tho' silently, of the smaller ones; since whatever is advantageous in the one, is disadvantageous in the other, & *e contra*.

Before we enquire what may be the proper size for Fortresses, we must first distinguish the places where they are intended to be built, and likewise those which are to have inhabitants besides their garrison, and those which are to have a garrison only; for where there are few or no inhabitants, they may either be made great or small, as best suits the Sovereign's affairs, without other consideration; but where there are towns already, and those full of people, regard must likewise be had to the preservation and defence of the Inhabitants; and 'tis on this account that we shall divide this Chapter into two Sections.

SECTION I.

Of the size proper for new Fortresses, where there are to be few or no Inhabitants.

TO determine this point the following particulars are to be consider'd. The situation of the State, the power of the prince who
is

is to build the Fortress, and that of the enemy expected to attack it, and if he is capable of bringing a powerful army for that purpose, how the Sovereign's interest stands with foreign and neighbouring States; whether these Fortresses are built for their own defence, or for the attack of others; whether intended to serve as a staple for others, and consequently destined to purposes which require a considerable extent of ground, as those for arsenals and magazines of ammunition and victualling-stores. What number of inhabitants may be expected, that is to say, whether it is likely to increase upon being fortified. Whether in time of war it may not be a place of retreat for the Peasants to retire to with their families, their cattle and effects; and lastly, the several conditions of its situation: All these different circumstances are to be weigh'd and consider'd before we can determine the bigness of a new Fortress. We shall now proceed to examine them separately.

First, in regard to the situation of the State; if it is of easy entrance, affording no obstacle to an invader; in this case it is certain there is a necessity the Fortresses should be large; for experience has taught us, that the largest are capable of most resistance, if attack'd: And when they are not so, if the enemy should leave them behind him, and advance farther into the country, he still finds himself obliged to have regard to them, as they

only being able to resist a small force, and to are

are more capable of giving him disturbance than small ones; they are likewise, as we have already said, easier to be succour'd than the latter.

If the State is of very difficult entrance, or no otherwise accessible but through mountain-passes, where the least handful of men may stop an army, in that case small Fortresses, but good ones, will best answer the purpose, and the making large ones there would not only be an useless expence, but might be productive of other inconveniences; for places situate amongst the mountains are generally difficult to succour, and as provisions are very apt to fall short in the great ones, they might easily be taken by famine.

If the Sovereign is weak, the dimensions of his places must be proportion'd to the number of his troops, that he may have enough to guard them in time of peace, and to defend them in time of war, and money enough in his treasury to pay the soldier, and to furnish the garrisons with the quantity of provision and ammunition necessary for a good defence; otherwise it were better to reduce the number of his Fortresses to a single one only, and to make that a large one; because a Prince who is inclinable to attack another, would sooner undertake it if he saw his adversary's forces distributed into several small places, than if they were collected in one large Fortress: For to besiege a place indifferently strong, indifferent numbers

numbers may suffice, but to besiege a large Fortress a very considerable body of troops will be required. Besides when a Prince aspires to make a conquest, other Princes, whether his inferiors or equals, who have reason to be jealous of his aggrandisement, will more readily unite to oppose him, if his object be a large town than if it were a small one. When Duke *d'Urbino* was attack'd by *Cæsar Borgia*, no Sovereign would interest himself in his behalf, because his places were so small, as to add but little to his power, whoever should make the acquisition.

When a Sovereign Enemy is weak, small Fortresses are sufficient to oppose him; as they are even against a powerful one, who can attack them but with a small number of his forces.

Against a Prince exceedingly powerful one should build large Fortresses only; 'twas on this account the *Athenians*, when the war with *Xerxes* was over, and they wanted to rebuild their city which had been destroy'd, enlarg'd its circumference.

When a Prince weak in himself has powerful allies, who are so thoroughly in his interest that he durst put his Fortrets into their hands, and depend on them for the guard and defence of it; in that case, he should proportion the size of his Fortrets to the power of those allies: 'Twas for this reason that when *Casal* was fortified heretofore by one of the Dukes of *Mantua*, he gave the place a circumference beyond the

the narrow limits of his own power to maintain, and suitable to that of the Kings of *France*, to whose protection he intended to commit it.

When a Prince has an ally jealous of his greatness, and whom he has as much reason to distrust as the common enemy, he should proportion the bigness of his Fortress to the joint power of both, that he may be able to reap some benefit from it, even against that ally, in case of a rupture with him. This way of reasoning determin'd the *Athenians* to persevere in enlarging their city's circumference, notwithstanding the remonstrances of their allies the *Lacedemonians*, who gave them to understand, that it was ill policy building Fortresses and Retreats for their enemies. They were sensible the *Lacedemonians* were consulting their particular interest only, without giving themselves any concern about the interest of *Greece* in general, and that they had no less reason to be jealous of the power of that Republick, than of the power of the Kings of *Persia*.

When a Fortress is intended for the Capital of a State, whether the State consists of that single Fortress only, or more, it ought to be a large one, because it is certain the number of its inhabitants will increase.

If a Fortress is intended to shut up and defend the entrance of a State, its bigness should be proportion'd to the garrison which the Sovereign is able to maintain there.

When

When a Fortrefs is intended to preserve a communication, or to ferve as a ftaple for other places, if the Sovereign is powerful, it is better that Fortrefs fhould be a large than a fmall one.

Fortreffes fhould be large when intended for holding arfenals or confiderable magazines; as in towns ftanding upon great rivers, or where feveral fmall ones meet and have a communication with canals; and are conveniently fituate for a ftaple of ammunition and provifions for a whole army, as well as for other Fortreffes.

All maritime places, having good harbours, for whatever purpofe they are constructed, ought to be large ones; to be capable of holding magazines and arfenals furnifh'd with neceffaries of all kinds for the equipment of a fleet upon occafion.

All places built for commerce ought likewise to be large, becaufe it is certain the number of their inhabitants will encrease; it was by thefe means *Dunkirk* grew fo confiderable in a fhort fpace of time.

If it is intended as a place of retreat for the people of the country, their families, cattle and effects, in time of war, the bignefs of it fhould be proportionable to the expected number of thofe refugees, &c. Such is the fituation of a place built in fome ifland of a fmall extent, remote from the continent, and which forming a State of itfelf, cannot expect the neighbouring States (in a cafe of neceffity) fhould be willing

willing to receive more of them than is consistent with their own security. These were the reasons which induced *Cottonere*, the Grand Master of *Malta*, to take so large a compass of ground into that Fortress he undertook to build there during his Regency, and whose principal object was the covering the harbour *Le Bourg*, and the Isle of *Sangle*. That Prince knew there was no depending on the fidelity of men shut up in a place besieged, after abandoning their wives and children to the discretion of the besiegers: He knew that the towns and forts together were not capable of containing all the inhabitants of town and country, without embarrassing the soldiery; and foresaw, that if *Malta* should be threaten'd with an attack, it would be a difficult matter to get all their useless people transported to the neighbouring countries, such a number of bottoms would be wanted for that purpose; that *Sicily*, its nearest neighbour, might be in danger of an attack at the same time, and perhaps unwilling to burthen herself with the unserviceable hands of another country, at a time when she rather wanted to get rid of her own; and therefore, as the opportunity now offer'd, it was but prudent to prepare an asylum for them in case of such a necessity hereafter. It was partly for these reasons that when the Author was at *Malta* in the year 1715, he was of opinion for compleating that Fortress, the rather as the most laborious part was already done; that it was evident there would

would not be a sufficient quantity of stuff for the new works proposed, and that it would be impossible to prevent their being overlook'd and commanded in reverse at a very short distance.

All places whatsoever, built to carry war into an enemy's country, should be large and capable of holding all the necessary provisions for the subsistence of the besieging army.

The circumstances of situation chiefly to be regarded in determining the greatness of a Fortrefs are as follow; First, where the air is unhealthy there should be no thoughts of making a large Fortrefs, because as the numbers of the garrison must be proportionable to its bigness, how urgent soever the necessity, it would be sacrificing too many people; besides, no inhabitants would come voluntarily to settle there. The case is the same where the water is not good.

If the situation be too much confined to admit of the building so large a Fortrefs as the Sovereign intends, a remedy may be found for this defect, provided the Sovereign's purse will bear it. After building such a Fortrefs as the situation will allow of, another must be built adjoining to one of its sides, to supply the deficiency of the former, and to which that former may serve as a Citadel; this method has been practised at mount *Lewis* in *Roussillon*: On the other hand, if the situation be such as to require a larger Fortrefs to cover it than the Sovereign purposes to build, it ought to be consider'd

which

which is most for his interest, whether to conform to the extent of the situation, or the narrow state of the Sovereign's affairs.

A Fortress should be small, when the situation is difficult of attack by force, and easy to defend; when it is a hard matter either to throw succours into it, or for the garrison to sally, and when an enemy can attack them with advantage.

The Place should be a large one when the situation is such that it would be a hard matter for the besiegers to prevent succours being thrown into it, when the garrison can sally with ease, and when the besiegers cannot be supplied with all kinds of necessaries for their subsistence during the siege.

The convenience of finding the principal materials upon the spot, a neighbourhood abounding with provisions, and where labour is so cheap, that works and buildings are of little expence; these are sufficient reasons for making the Fortress a large one.

As the strength and power of a Prince consists in having a number of large and very populous towns, and as the aggrandisement of his State ought to be one of the chief objects of his attention, 'tis certain he should naturally incline to make all his towns large ones, unless he has some particular reasons to the contrary; amongst which reasons the fear of wanting inhabitants ought to have no place. Politicians have shewn us many ways of peopling towns, for example,

P.

When

226 *The safety, &c. of States,*

When the Prince is pleased to grant them greater privileges and immunities than are granted to others; hence it was that *Rome* made those quick advances towards greatness in her infant state, and *Leghorn* to the same cause owes a great part of her present numerous inhabitants.

When the Sovereign encourages the trade of the inhabitants, and establishes such manufactures amongst them as may invite workmen from foreign countries.

When it is the place of residence of a great number of the nobility, by whom many of the ordinary fort subsist; by this means the town and island of *Malta* are become so populous, since *Charles V.* dedicated them to the service of Religion.

A town grows populous when the Prince there establishes the residence of several of his Courts of Justice.

When Colleges are founded there, and Academies for the Education of Youth.

Lastly, When the Sovereign appoints it as a place of Exile for Persons of Distinction on some occasion fallen into disgrace. The *Venetians* took occasion by this means, 'tis said, to people *Palma Nova*.

Tho' it be for the interest of the Sovereign to have large Cities, the case is not the same in regard to Citadels; as these last Fortresses are not to be inhabited and guarded but by the military only, who are maintain'd at the Prince's expence, they ought not to be made large but
when

when there is a particular necessity for it; their magnitude should be determined by the extent of the spot they are intended to occupy, by the largeness of the towns to which they belong, and the numbers of that garrison the Prince thinks necessary to keep there.

If a Prince cannot afford the expence of building a compleat Citadel, Fort, or Castle, and is only able to maintain an exceeding small garrison, there may be built adjoining to the town walls, and as near as possible to the Governour's house or Prince's palace, if he resides there, a square Arsenal inclosed with a strong high wall in the form of a Fort, capable of holding all the artillery and a part of the powder. The wall is built with little expence, and the arsenal may be guarded by a few people; twenty men alone will be sufficient to guard its entrance, and by keeping a few pieces of cannon and mortars mounted on some little eminence within, ready for service against the inhabitants if there should be occasion, the Prince will find himself in a capacity of obliging them to return to their duty, if they should stray from it; and for his more convenient retreat thither in case of necessity, a subterranean passage must be made from the palace to the arsenal, for the Prince with his guard and court to enter that way, from thence to defend himself against the seditious; and that he may have it in his power either to quit it upon occasion, or to receive succours into it, a bridge must be laid over the

ditch leading into the country. This method may serve very well to protect a Prince from his populace, whose revenue cannot bear the expence either of constructing, or maintaining the number of troops necessary to defend a Citadel, Fort, or Castle.

SECTION II.

When there are large Towns compleatly built and standing on the frontiers, whether it be best to fortify them all round, or to leave them quite open, or to fortify them in part only, and to demolish the rest, or leave them to the discretion of the enemy.

EACH part of this proposition has its reasons *pro* and *con*; when they are fortified compleatly, the inhabitants have the pleasure of seeing the Prince's care for the preservation both of their persons and effects, a small number will be sufficient to garrison them in peace, and should they be attack'd in time of war they cannot fail making a great resistance: To this it may be objected, that the great number of bastions required to encompass it all round are enough to exhaust the treasure of a whole country; if a garrison is put there, their numbers

be
gu
yo
ne
ste
alw
ma
' is
' fa
' p
' G
' th
' ci
' m
like
hab
to a
I
and
tion
war
with
the l
farth
war,
If
rest e
cretic
pitya
lence

* P

bers must be proportionable to the many out-guards and centinels you are oblig'd to keep; if you trust entirely to the inhabitants, and have neither Fort or Citadel, they are as much masters as the Prince himself, and the people being always fond of change, upon the least discontent may rise and expel their Governors. 'There is a farther inconvenience, says M. Roban,* in fortifying large cities, that it makes them so proud, that they will not acknowledge their Governors longer than things go well with them; and on the least mischance in war, the citizens are more inclinable to submit to new masters, than to lose their effects; sometimes likewise their fortifications put it into the inhabitants heads to revolt, and encourages them to attempt it, as Tacitus says of Jerusalem.

If these great towns are left quite exposed, and no care taken to put them in such a condition as to secure them from being insulted; when war comes, they are less solicitous to keep well with the Sovereign than with the enemy; and if the last gets the better, will stretch their purses farther to contribute towards the charge of the war, than if their own Prince had the advantage.

If a part of them only is fortified, and the rest either demolish'd or abandon'd to the discretion or fury of the enemy, 'tis really a very pityable case; 'tis to ruin or expose to the violence of the soldiers what has cost so much labour

* *Parfaite Capitaine*, chap. 19.

and expence to build; and you can no longer expect those people, whose habitations you have either razed or abandon'd, should retain the least affection for their Sovereign.

To determine which of these measures should be taken, we must consider the power of the Sovereign, the particular strength of the town and its dependance, how long it has been under the subjection of that Sovereign, the disposition of the inhabitants, their zeal and loyalty for their Prince, the importance of the place to the State, and the advantages of its situation.

These great towns should be fortified entirely when they are of importance to the whole State, when they are advantageously situated and sufficiently wealthy to bear the expence of their own fortifications, the keeping up of the works, and maintainance of their garrisons, or if they are not able themselves when the Sovereign's revenue can afford those expences. When fortified they will be in a capacity of defending their own effects, and consequently their Prince's person, the rather as the enemy will not so readily form the resolution of attacking such a town, as one of an ordinary bigness.

When they are only of importance to themselves, and not to the State in general, they ought likewise to be compleatly fortified, if they are advantageously situated, and rich enough to contribute to all the expences necessary for their own security and preservation.

If

If besides the above circumstances they have not been long under the subjection of their Prince, or the inhabitants fickle, inconstant, and of little attachment to the State, they may likewise be entirely fortified, provided a Citadel or Fort is sufficient to keep them in obedience.

Great towns ought to be left quite open when they are of no importance to the State, are extremely disadvantageously situated, or when neither the Sovereign nor themselves are able to defray the charges of their fortifications and repairs; hence it was that we have seen heretofore, and see even at this day, several large towns in the *Low Countries*, without any fortifications, or at least very slight ones, as *Bruges*, *Louvain*, *Liege*, &c.

Great towns ought not to be fortified when they have not been long under the jurisdiction of their Sovereign, and require great numbers to garrison them; where such Citadels as the situations would admit of would not be sufficient to keep them to their duty, or the whole amount to an expence exceeding the revenue either of the town or Sovereign; 'tis on this account that Conquerors, after making themselves masters of such places, instead of fortifying them have demolish'd their fortifications, as even those of smaller towns, to take from them when conquer'd all possibility of revolting. After *Perseus* was defeated, the Consul *Paulus Emilius* caus'd threescore and ten cities to be plunder'd and dismantled. The *Turks* are said

232 *The safety, &c. of States,*

to follow the example of the *Romans* in this particular. In the year 1521 the *French* having driven the *Spaniards* out of the Kingdom of *Navarre*, where they had invaded the sovereign authority, and the latter having as quickly recover'd it again, by the advice of the Emperor *Charles V.* they dismantled all the towns and castles, *Pampelona*, *Pont de la Reine*, and *Estella* excepted, to prevent the Nobles revolting in a country where the common people were well affected to their natural Prince. This is a good way to prevent a rebellion, but it may sometimes happen to leave both parties a prey to a foreign enemy. *Mezeray* says, that
 ‘ when the *Romans* first conquer’d *Gaul*, they
 ‘ could reckon up twelve hundred walled towns,
 ‘ of most of which they either beat down the
 ‘ inclosures, or suffered them to fall to ruin;
 ‘ but whilst by keeping them thus dismantled
 ‘ they thought to prevent the people’s revolt-
 ‘ ing, they laid the country open to the in-
 ‘ sults of the Barbarians.

Such great towns as are of no importance but to themselves only, whose inhabitants are of a light and fickle disposition, and have but little zeal either for the Sovereign or State, ought likewise to be left open.

Great towns ought to be fortified in part, and the rest abandon’d when they are of importance to the State in general; when one part of them is very advantageously situated, and the rest no less disadvantageously. When neither Sove-
 reign

reign nor towns are by any means in a capacity of defraying the expence of fortifying them entirely, and maintaining a sufficient garrison in them.

Great towns ought to be fortified in part, and the rest demolish'd, when they are of importance to the State in general, when the situation of the greater part of them is extremely advantageous, and that of the lesser not only disadvantageous but prejudicial to the defence of the part fortified, in case of an attack; as when it would be capable but of a very faint resistance itself, and the enemy afterwards making his lodgment there, in order to attack the stronger part, it might both facilitate his approaches, and furnish him with materials. The suburbs of such a town as would give the besiegers an advantage like this, should be demolish'd before it is besieg'd: It was for this reason the *French* demolish'd all the suburbs of *Metz*, and many beautiful churches there, the better to enable the city to sustain the siege of the Emperor *Charles V.* in the year 1552. The same measures ought to be taken when the garrison is but weak, and the numbers lost in the defence of the suburbs might prejudice the defence of the town.



CHAP. VII.

Of the quantity of works a Fortrefs ought to have, their form and substance.

AS the peace and happiness of a people, and the safety of a State may all depend upon the defence made by a single Fortrefs, it is but prudent perfectly well to consider not only in what parts they ought to stand, what is to be expected from them, their situation and proper dimensions; but likewise what quantity of works they ought to have, their figure and substance; as the rightly disposing of the several parts of a Fortification perfects a happy situation, and corrects a defective one; and 'tis on this disposition that the good or ill defence of a place principally depends. The bravery and steadiness of a garrison, and the ability of those who command may supply some certain defects, but there are others against which they are of no availment. Ill-fated are those troops and commanders who are shut up in such places, as almost all mankind judge of the merits of a defence by the success, without farther regard to circumstances. How many bad defences have been imputed to governors and their garrisons, which ought to have been laid to their charge
who

who had the direction of the Fortifications? and what applauses have garrisons receiv'd for the long sieges they sustain'd, where the works defended themselves? It is therefore of the utmost importance to a State, and for the honour of its troops, that none be entrusted with the charge of fortifying places but men of good capacity, thorough experience, and great diligence in their profession. The crime of neglect in such a one may possibly be of greater prejudice to his country than even his who should come and deliver up the place to the enemy; as the whole infamy of the treason would fall upon the head of the traitor, whereas the dishonour of a hasty surrender, tho' occasion'd by defects in the fortification is in some measure a slur on the valour of the whole nation. 'Tis likewise of the utmost consequence that an army keep up its reputation for courage with the enemy, for if once they have a notion that you are faint-hearted, from thence forward all attempts seem practicable to them, and that single persuasion has frequently crown'd the most desperate actions with success; in which respect, as well as in regard to the importance of the Place itself, one may truly affirm the ill defence of any single one may be the loss of a whole State.

SECTION I.

The sentiments of Engineers concerning this subject.

IEngineers are by no means agreed either as to the quantity of works which should compose the front of a fortification, nor as to the manner of laying out the design, and still less as to the form and substance of its several parts.

Some, of whose number is the Chevalier *de Ville* and *M. de Vauban*, make but few works in each front, and those very simple ones, to save expence in the construction, as well as the troops and ammunition necessary for their defence.

Others, as *Pagan*, *Blondel*, &c. by the great number of works with which they accompany the fronts of their fortification, and the disposition of their parts seem to have no farther consideration than how to encrease the difficulty of attack, and protract the defence of the place, without troubling themselves either about the expence of their construction, or the men or ammunition necessary for their defence; tho', at the same time, a long defence is not to be made without great appointments, which require great disbursements, as those again great wealth and power in the Prince.

M.

M. Coeborn is fallen into this dilemma, especially in his third manner of fortifying an octagon.

* Some in tracing the plan of a fortification, begin with the exterior side of the Polygon, as that determines at once where the points of the bastions fall, which is of great advantage when rivers, precipices, commandments, or other irregularities of the surface, neither admit of advancing, retiring, or deviating to the right or left with the point of the bastion, but absolutely compell the placing it on a certain spot; † others begin with tracing the interior side of the polygon, in order to fix the line of the curtain, which is convenient when the boundaries of the town are already determined by the buildings, or by some old rampart, which may serve again for that purpose.

Some Engineers of old were for trusting the defence of the place chiefly to the great guns, as these admitting of the greatest distance betwixt the several parts of the fortifications, considerably lessen the expence, as the works may be made so much the larger, and Tenailles carried along before the curtains to hold musqueteers; as cannon-shot entirely demolish any bridge, lodgment, or other works, the besiegers find necessary to make in the ditch; as no armour is proof against them, as against other weapons, and when the enemy want to make a lodgment, it is a work of greater difficulty,

* Pagan, Blondel, Vauban, &c

† de Ville.

difficulty, and longer time to cover themselves from them than from the musket.

The moderns are for depending chiefly upon the musket for the defence of the place, and would not have the lines of defence exceed its shot; because with that weapon may be made a continual fire with little expence, and when a musqueteer happens to be killed, another instantly takes his place; that even the cannon better answers its purpose at that distance, than if the line of defence was longer: That the parts within defence of the musket, are also within the defence of the cannon, which advantage is not reciprocal. That this way the use of both weapons is preserved, whereas in the other, the musket, the better of the two, is quite lost. That to extend the works to the distance of cannon shot, is to depend on a warlike engine of great force 'tis true, but such as is easily overthrown by the enemies batteries, and for execution nothing so ready as the musket. That the defence of great guns has this farther inconvenience, that every shot consumes abundance of powder, and its effects are very uncertain. That to fire plunging shot, the metal can only be rais'd to such a degree, when that is exceeded the piece wrecks the carriage. That to make proper use of this machine, a well laid platform is required, and a carriage well fitted and proportioned; that if either happeneth to be destroyed by the enemy, the firing from that part

ceaseth

ceaseth
wh
sing
wh
last
chan

T
sever
man
may
ing
cau
than
firin
ther
in th
lodg
the
defe
tent
una
the
defe
scen

†
lines
rent
seco
the
ther

*
&c.

ceaseth till another can be brought into its place, which takes up a considerable time. That every single piece is a long time in serving, by which means it cannot be fired often; and lastly, that every man is not capable either of charging or pointing it.

The Chevaliers *de Ville*, *Tensini*, *Lorini*, and several others * are for fortifying after such a manner, that the lines of the faces produced, may fall within the curtain, and are for making second flanks there as large as possible, because they defend the faces by shorter lines than the first, enlarge the place itself, make the firing from the first flanks more easy, and from thence you can see the reverse of the breach in the opposite bastion, by which means the lodgment becomes a work of more difficulty to the enemy, the passage of the ditch is better defended, as it is seen from a greater extent of rampart from the place; and by the unavoidable contraction of the shoulder of the bastion, almost the whole counterscarp is defended by the curtain, particularly the descent of the ditch

† Other Engineers again are for having the lines of the faces produced, terminate at the retring angle ‡; they absolutely disapprove second flanks, because in Polygons of few sides, the angles of the bastions become too acute thereby, and they defend the faces too ob-

* *A lignes fichantes.*
&c.

† *Pagan. Blondel, Vauban,*
‡ *A lignes rasantes.*

liquely; besides which inconvenience the re-
 tring angle of the counterscarp obstructs the flank
 in its view of the opposite face, when the ditches
 are of a reasonable breadth, or if you would have
 that flank command the ditch, the ditch must
 not be made every where of an equal breadth,
 which must occasion an additional expence.

Nor are Engineers agreed as to the extent of
 the flank, some are for making it as wide as
 the ditch, others as wide as the ditch and co-
 vered way together, to be on an equal footing
 of space with the enemy, and able to oppose
 them with an equal number of cannon; others,
 as *Blondel*, in order to exceed them in front,
 give the flanks a still greater extent.

Errard perceiving how easily the flanks
 were ruin'd by the enemies batteries on the
 opposite counterscarp, the better to cover
 them, as he thought, first made them perpen-
 dicular to the faces of bastion, others after
 him observing what little room there was in
 those flanks, that the gorges became too much
 straightened, the embrasures too oblique, that
 the ditch had too little share of the defence,
 and that it was not sufficient for the flank to be
 covered, if at the same time you could not from
 thence discover what the enemy were doing in
 the ditch, very soon changed that method,
 and made the flank perpendicular to the cur-
 tain; the better to defend the ditch, that it
 might be seen of the places it flanked only,
 and not batter'd in a direct line, but only ob-
 liquely,

only, and in the mean time defend the curtain, the bridges and the gates. Count *Pagan* who came afterwards, would have the flanks perpendicular to the lines of defence, for the shot to graze the faces, to have a better view of the ditch, and to defend it in a more direct line, the rather as it is an indisputed maxim in fortification, that the parts which flank, should view those which are flank'd in as direct a line as possible. *Blondel*, in his new method, makes them form an obtuse angle with the lines of defence, to defend both the counterscarp and the ravelin. * Engineers at present would have them the cord of an arc, whose centre is either the point or angle of the opposite bastion, or else the angle of the shoulder, or a point taken in the center of the opposite face, which are pretty near the same thing.

Some Engineers are for single flanks only, and those to be right lines, both to lessen the expence, and because they think them sufficiently covered from the field by the ravelin: as likewise because they overlook a larger extent of ground, and that, dispose of them in what manner you will, the cannon of the besiegers will always be superior to any you can place there.

That if any of the pieces on those flanks are not to be seen from the batteries on the counterscarp, they may be dismounted as easily by shells, and

Q

242 *The safety, &c. of States,*

and that a flank's best defence is that which is made with its small arms.

As the flank is intended to defend the body of the Place, and is the principal part that defends it, Engineers in general are agreed, that no means should be neglected which may contribute to its preservation, and prevent its ruin ; and having observed that the cannon of single flanks were liable to be batter'd obliquely, and sensible of the impossibility of obstructing the enemies works in the ditch without cannon, they would have the flank composed of two parts, the one retiring within the angle of the shoulder, the other projecting outwards and called the Orillons. The first to hold a cannon, the second to cover it, and to prevent its being obliquely batter'd, and likewise for holding musqueteers.

These Engineers advance the Orillon more or less. *M. de Vauban* advances it only five Toises, and *M. de Coeborn* twenty-four, before his upper flank, the better to protect it from cross fires.

'Tis an indisputable maxim, that every flank ought to have some cannon conceal'd, for which reason most Engineers who divide the flanks into two parts, are for producing the *Contre Brisure*, or inside of the Orillon, in a direct line with the point of the opposite bastion.

Some

* Some are for making the retired part of the flank a third of the whole; and the Orillon the other two thirds. † Others make it the half, some again two thirds, for placing the greater number of cannon there, and Blondel is for making it much larger than the rest, that the cannon concealed there may have a greater angle to fire within the breach; and for this reason M. Coehorn is said to have allow'd ten Toises to the Orillon, and no farther.

|| Some Engineers make this retired part of the Orillon a strait line; others again that the masonry may better resist the pressure of the Earth, and that part of the flank be capable of holding a greater number of cannon, would have it an arc, whose center is the summit of an equilateral triangle, and whose base the cover'd flank.

† Some Engineers are for having the Epaulment or Orillon itself a straight line; others are of opinion, it would be so much the easier destroyed, because of its angles, and give it a circular form, for the fewer of its parts to be batter'd perpendicularly from the same battery.

The Orillon of M. de Coehorn is a stone tower, with a Souterrain, where he makes casemates for six pieces of cannon, to defend the ditch and face of the stone retrenchment within the bastion, otherwise called the ditch,

Q 2 and
De Ville. † Pagan. † Vauban. † Pagan.

and face of his capital bastion; which is the name he gives that retrenchment. There are several other useful purposes and advantages which he ascribes to that sort of Orillon.

Most Engineers who are for Orillons, would have them of masonry, earth alone not sufficiently supporting them. The Chevalier *Tenfini*, and a few others, are for having them of earth only, that they may not be broken down or destroyed, nor the stone rubbish beat out from thence hurt those in the places beneath them.

Some considering the ditch as the most important part of the fortification, and consequently the part which ought principally to be defended, and persuaded that places are lost thro' the defects of the flanks only, place three batteries in them, one above the other, in the form of an amphitheatre, in order to be superior in artillery to the besiegers, and to be able effectually to prevent their placing cannon on the counterscarp.

* Others again absolutely disapprove of these three batteries; their reasons are, that when the pieces on the uppermost are fired, the wadd falling into the lower, may set the powder there on fire; that the smoke rising from the pieces of the lower batteries obstructs the service of the upper ones, and that the lower ones soon become useless, by the falling down of the parapets of those above; that in history there are many instances of this kind. That the
flanks

* *Pagan, Blondel.*

flanks of the Citadel of *Cambrai* were the occasion of the loss of that Fortress, the year 1595, for that the *Spaniards* having batter'd the wall, and dismounted its pieces, the falling ruins choak'd up the lower flank in such a manner, that both became useless. That it is a difficult matter to make use of all three at the same time, because of the rubbish and stuff which is continually falling from above; that as soon as the ravelin is taken, they become absolutely useless, they are so commanded from thence. That the walls before each of these places are so low, the Place itself is in danger of being surpris'd by *Escalade*, and that such a quantity of rubbish falls down from each wall in that amphitheatre, as in a siege might form a breach, and give an entrance into the bastion.

The Chevalier *Tensini*, who is for this disposition of the flank, answers one part of these objections, by saying, that to avoid inconvenience from the falling fire, 'tis only putting the powder in a secure place under cover, and laying a few planks over the pieces when charged. That if you cannot make use of all three flanks at the same time, you may use them one after the other, and the cannon of one battery be left to rest and cool, while those of another are firing. That if one happens to be dismounted, you may fire from the rest till 'tis refitted. That to prevent the mischief done by the stone rubbish from the walls, 'tis only making the

parapets of earth, and by making a ditch before the lower, you will secure the place from a surprize on that side, as well as prevent the besiegers making use of the ruins for a breach.

Most Engineers at present persuaded that the cannon of the besiegers will always have the superiority, what number soever are brought to oppose them, content themselves with a single battery in the retir'd flank, and only endeavour to dispose of that piece which is to fire into the breach, in such a manner, as that it may be in no danger of being dismounted by the cannon of the besiegers from the counter-scarp.

Some Engineers again, that the ditch and breach may be defended by a greater number of artillery than the besiegers shells can disquiet or dismount, and not to diminish the gorges of their bastions, but to keep room for making cavaliers and entrenchments there, construct several vaulted batteries one above the other. This method has great inconveniencies attending it; the besiegers cannon makes great havock amongst the piers of the vaults, and may possibly at last ruin those parts to such a degree, as not only to occasion the falling in of the vault, but of the whole flank above, and render all the batteries useless; besides the smoak of the cannon is so offensive to those who have the serving of the batteries, that they can neither see to load nor manage them; which smoak hangs so long in

In the Souterrains, notwithstanding the several vents and chimneys made to carry it off, as to occasion a long interval between the discharges, by which means it comes to pass, the fire of the artillery from all those vaults is not more considerable, than if there were only the upper open battery.

Nor do all Engineers give the same dimensions to the demigorge; those who would have the flanks perpendicular to the curtain, make it the sixth part of the interior side of the polygon, as the Chevalier *de Ville*, and several others. Those who are for having them perpendicular to the lines of defence, would have the demigorge a large one, for placing upper and lower batteries there, and because it affords a spacious entrance into the bastion, gives room for constructing cavaliers, and for making magazines and retrenchments, and enlarges the bastion itself.

Some are for having the faces little, because they are the parts most exposed to the enemy, being at the greatest distance from the defences, others are for making them very large; in the mean time all agree, they ought to be less than the curtains, except Count *Pagan*, who often makes them equal to them, in order to have great demigorges, and *Blondel* who sometimes makes them larger for the same reason.

Some Engineers are for having the curtain very large, because it is the part best defended,

fended, and by that means the flanks see better the bottom of the ditch before the faces; others have established a proportion between that and the face, as *Speckle* and *Marolois*; others, without troubling themselves about that proportion, are satisfied provided the curtain be something longer than the face.

Those Engineers who began building about the time when breaches were made by cannon, amongst other things would have it laid down as absolutely necessary, that the points of the bastions contain a right angle, thinking that by having that degree of solidity given them, they will be enabled better to withstand the cannon; the *Chevalier de Ville* who came since, and some others have been of the same opinion.

Others again are not much concerned tho' the flank'd angle be acute, provided it be not to such a degree as for the point to be easily broke by the cannon. They approve of them provided they are above 60 degrees, as they furnish an opportunity of taking a second flank out of the curtain, and of enlarging the more necessary parts of the fortification, as the flanks and demigorges, which augment the defence. Besides, when the angle is acute, the faces can defend one another, when the flanks come to be broken. Engineers, as *Sardis*, have even maintained, that of two angles of bastions, where one is an acute, and the other a right angle, to make an equal breach in both, either
by

by mine or cannon, the quantity of ruin required for that purpose, will be greater in the acute than in the right angle. The question has formerly made a good deal of noise, but has fallen to the ground, since experience has taught us, that breaches made in the angles of bastions are attended with inconveniencies not found in those made towards the middle of the faces above the shoulders.

The Engineers who first fortified after cannon were in use, were for small bastions, because being the part the enemy must needs attack, and through which they must pass to enter the place, the smaller the part, the easier it was to guard it, and defend the passage. But experience has since taught us, that those small bastions were easily ruin'd by artillery, that they were incapable of any retrenchment, and that there was not even room for the troops which should defend them.

It has likewise been found, that those great bastions which were made afterwards by some Engineers, required too great numbers to defend them as they ought, and that in furnishing a large area for retrenchments, they furnished the besiegers with the same convenience for their attacks.

Some Engineers are for full bastions, because cavaliers may be rais'd in them to command the field, and defend the passage of the ditch, which is not practicable when the bastion is a void one. Besides, that when the enemy has made a breach in the face of a bastion, you may dispute

pute the ground from your retrenchments, which is not practicable in a void bastion, because the breach commands the ground where the retrenchments should be made, at least the part remaining fit for that purpose is exceeding small.

Those of a contrary opinion say, that in a void bastion, you may make powder magazines, or what other buildings may be wanted; that from thence it is easier going out to meet the enemy's mines, when there are no countermines; and that when the ditches do not furnish a sufficient quantity of earth to fill up the bastion, you are obliged to go a great way to fetch it, which is a very considerable augmentation of the expence; this last circumstance is what usually determines the making the bastion full or void.

Some Engineers, of whom the Chevalier *Tensini* is one, are persuaded it would be an advantageous way of fortifying, if the place was only to be surrounded with a single rampart, and the bastions quite independant and detached; because when thus disposed of, the loss of a bastion doth not entail the loss of the place after it, as there still remains a ditch for the enemy to pass, and a rampart to force; they add, that a smaller number of troops would suffice to garrison the place in peace, and even to defend it in time of siege. *M. Vauban's* new system of tower-bastions gives great reason to believe he was of the same sentiment.

Others

Others again by no means approve of this disposition, and say, that when the bastions are disjoin'd from the place they can never be defended by the curtain, that is to say, they can have no second flanks; that a detach'd bastion is extremely difficult to defend, especially if the ditch be a wet one; and even when it is a dry one, it is a very troublesome business, the transporting cannon thither, and sending them in succours, if they happen to be attack'd; and that bastions of this kind are capable of no greater resistance than a ravelin or a counter-guard.

Pagan and some others would have retrenchments made in the bastions before-hand, in the same manner as they ought to be when attack'd; for example, within the great bastion they would have another little one form'd, with a good ditch and rampart about it, because all works made at leisure during peace, and which have had time to settle, are much better than those made in a hurry, just when they are wanted. That when the ditch betwixt the larger and lesser bastion is of a reasonable depth, it gives the besieged an easy opportunity of carrying out mines from thence, and of making forties to overthrow the enemy's lodgments. *M. Coeborn*, in his method of fortifying a Royal Hexagon, makes a retrenchment with a revetment in the bastion, and with a ditch 16 toises wide, at the foot of which retrenchment is planted a row of palisades,

ades, with barriers to secure the retreat of the forties. He calls that retrenchment, his capital bastion.

Others say those retrenchments a little embarrass the bastion, and obstruct the passing to and from the great rampart; that they are a considerable expence, because they must be made in all the bastions alike; and that if the besiegers are aware of their disposition, they will take more certain measures in their attack.

The ramparts of Places, according to some Engineers, should be rais'd very high above the field, as they cover the houses so much better, as those upon the ramparts have a greater command of the environs, see farther into the besieger's works, can easier disturb them in their approaches and batteries, and defend the detach'd and other outworks to better advantage.

To this they add, that when the rampart is very low the least elevation covers the besiegers.

The greater number of them at present are for giving the ramparts but little elevation, because they support themselves so much better; because they are rais'd with less trouble and expence, are less expos'd to the besieger's batteries, their ruins less choke up the ditch, and by that means less facilitate the passage of it, and a smaller space of ground is left at the foot of them undefended; the shot fired from thence graze better, and the soldier is not obliged to expose himself so much, to defend the foot of the glacis; the

the
much
in th
their
of th
town
prov
oppo
dang
fend
beca
they
they
in fe
mous
heigh
defen
parap
days
flank
place
seen
good
put i
shall
A
the r
exper
parap
down
parts
make

the cannon doth not wreck its carriage so much; and lastly, in order to make a breach in them, the besiegers are obliged to bring their cannon to the ditch side. *Dogen* was of this sentiment, and for his reason instances the town of *Breda*, whose too great height of rampart prov'd prejudicial to it, and gave the besiegers an opportunity of approaching it with so little danger, that the besieged were obliged to defend themselves by rolling down stones; because if they had made use of small arms, they must have been too much exposed; and they were obliged to make cuts in the rampart in several places, to fire upon the enemy. A famous modern Engineer maintains, that the height of a rampart considerably obstructs the defence of it. The enemy, says he, ruins the parapets of the faces of the bastions in the first days of the siege, without sparing those of the flanks; the great secret consists in burying the place after such a manner, as for it only to be seen from the ditch side: The maxim is a very good one, but it neither can nor ought to be put in practice in all kinds of situations, as we shall show hereafter.

A great many Engineers are against giving the ramparts any revetment, both to save the expence, and because a shot fired into a turfen parapet only makes its hole, without throwing down, or so much as shaking the contiguous parts; whereas when fired against masonry, it makes a vast ruin, shocks all around it, and the
shards

shards flying out may happen to kill or wound those within the reach of them.

M. Coehorn says, he doth not think it possible to build a wall so strong as to withstand a numerous artillery, but that if it be practicable it must be at an immense expence; 'tis upon this account that he doth not give a compleat revetment to the first ramparts of his bastions, ravelins, or their lower faces, but only to the orillon, curtain, and faces of the retrenchment in the bastion and in the ravelin; yet still keeps up the first ramparts of the two last works so high, that the walls of their retrenchments are cover'd from the cannon of the field.

Some on the other hand disapprove such ramparts as have no revetment; because they require a very considerable talus, especially if the earth is of a very bad kind, and the ditch a wet one; because a little matter makes them fall in, and when their palisades are broke by the bomb batteries, an easy ascent is made; that when the besiegers are once got up to the berm, they can slip away to the right and left, and mount to the assault by several ways at the same time; that such ramparts, tho' less expensive than others to raise, are much more so to keep in repair; and *Blondel* says, the body of the place in such Fortresses, is of no farther use than to procure better terms of capitulation, as soon as it is spoil'd of its outworks.

M. Coe

M. Coehorn would have no berm at all, because it renders the rampart every where accessible, and leaves a better footing for the besiegers; but to prevent the falling ruins of the rampart he gives it a sufficient talus, and the better to support the earth plants a row of stakes in the ditch, so close as to touch one another. All the rest of the Engineers are for having a berm of a sufficient width for planting a row of palisades on, for the besieged to make lodgments there, and to defend nearer at hand the passage of the ditch.

Many to save the expence of walls in part, and to keep them out of the view of the besiegers cannon, would not have the revetment of the rampart rais'd higher than the level of the ground, and the rest of it to be supported by turf only. Others disapprove those kinds of ramparts, especially where the ditch of the place is a dry one, as they greatly facilitate surprises by escalade, and in time of siege, if the lowness of the masonry is its protection in some measure against the enemy's cannon, 'tis not so against the mine.

Almost all Engineers make the parapet four foot and a half high, with one or more banquets, that the musketeer when he has fired may retire under cover; and make embrasures and merlons, to cover both the cannon, cannoneers, and other persons appointed to serve them. The Chevalier *de Ville*, and some others, are for having no banquets, but the parapet only
just

just high enough to fire over *en barbette*, for the more easy traversing the piece on either side.

All Engineers are for having the parapets of soft mold, that there may be no shards or rubbish to hurt those behind. *Blondel* would have them all of masonry, and only six foot thick, with three of earth behind, and disapprove those made of earth only, and three toises thick, because ' that great thickness takes up a great
' part of the terre-plain, throws back the de-
' fence, and prevents the seeing or defending any
' part of the ditch before it; by which means
' the enemy make their lodgment there with
' ease, and carry on their trenches by demi-
' sap, to the right and left from the breach
' towards the retrenchments, when they are
' lodg'd upon the head of the bastion.' There is no danger from their shards or rubbish, he says, when they are made of masonry, because of the three feet of earth behind; and as for those shot which strike the glacis of the parapet, unless they plunge from a great height they rise and fly over it with a rebound.

Some having found by experience how formidable low defences were, what mischievous effects they were capable of producing, and how hard a matter 'tis to ruin them, have from thence taken occasion to make a *fausse-bray* or second rampart round about the place, within the great ditch, even with, or at most a foot or two lower than the level of the ground, for placing mus-
queteers

queteers in, to defend nearer at hand the bottom of the ditch and faces of the bastions.

Others disapprove of them, because their terre-plain is liable to be enfiladed from the saliant angles, unless either traverses are made in them, or the parapet in that part rais'd very high; because they are plung'd into by the ravelin as soon as it is taken; and if the ramparts of the place are of earth, the falling rubbish from thence fills up the fausse-bray; if they happen to have a revetment, the shards may kill or wound those who should defend it.

Some Engineers, not to be obliged to make the ditch wider than the upper flank, or to give the enemy means and opportunity of placing upon the ditch side a greater number of cannon than the besieged can possibly bring in opposition to them, to defend the flank intended to be destroy'd: and because it is a difficult matter to prevent the fausse-bray from being enfiladed, which is before the face of the bastion, would only have that part of it stand, which is before the flank and to be of the same length with it. Others, for the above reasons, are of opinion, that there should be none before the faces, but approve of it before the flanks, and likewise before the curtains; this is M. *Vauban's* opinion, and that of several other modern Engineers. They would have it sever'd from the body of the place by a ditch, that it may not be necessary to the facilitating an attack either upon the curtain, or

R

upon

upon the flanks; that is to say, that the rubbish of the wall of the body of the place and that of the fausse-bray together, may not make a breach of easy ascent: This affords one great convenience, which is, that the ditch behind the fausse-bray on the flanks serves for a place of arms for the troops to sally from into the great ditch, when it is a dry one, or as a secure retreat for the boats when it is a wet; for which purposes these small works are of excellent use. They are called *tenailles* to distinguish them from the former. They have likewise this farther advantage, that as by their advanced situation in the ditch they draw nearer to the points of the opposite bastions, the lines of defence may be extended beyond the reach of musquet-shot, which will something reduce the expences of the fortification. In these kinds of fausse-brays or *tenailles*, some are for giving them faces, flanks, and curtains; others for their having two faces only, parallel to those of the bastions; others again in some particular cases make them with two faces, and a small curtain; of which three several forms the first is the worst, because their flanks are enfiladed by the ravelin. Some Engineers are for their presenting a saliant angle to the enemy, to shorten still more the line of defence, and that those within them may be out of reach of the flying shards from the wall of the body of the place. *M. Vauban* sometimes made use of one, sometimes t'other, occasionally. *M. Coehorn*,

in his first and third method, gives the curtains of his tenailles a salient angle, to make them more capable of defence, and to give the troops in them more room to move.

Engineers are likewise divided in their sentiments in regard to cavaliers. Some would have them in every front of the fortification, to command the adjacent parts of the field, and to incommode the besiegers in their works; Others condemn them, because the higher the canon is rais'd the more naked it stands, and expos'd to battery and ruin from every side. Because shot pointed downwards have neither that force nor certainty of aim as those pointed upwards from below, and neither of them so great an effect as those fired horizontally, whether it be against a battalion, or against a battery, or any other work of the kind; for besides that plunging shot have less force in themselves, they meet with a longer line of resistance in the substance of the work. That when the besieger's batteries stand on a low ground, to prevent their cannon being seen from the cavaliers after their recoil, there needs only the giving their platforms a greater declination. That those cavaliers are a great expence, and that cannon placed on the same spot on the level ground would be much more serviceable in the defence of the ditch and opposite bastion.

Amongst those who approve of cavaliers, some are for placing them on the second flank near the curtain, in order to discover the face of

the opposite bastion, and to defend it. Others would have them in the gorge of the bastions, or in the midst of the curtains, that one may be sufficient for each front, and by that means to save expence. Others place them in the bastions. These Engineers are as little agreed about the form of them, whether it should be circular, oval, square, oblong square, or a rhomboid; the last of which is the most generally approved.

Dry and wet ditches have likewise each of them their partisans; those who give the preference to the former do it for the following reasons. Because from thence is easier taken out any quantity of earth that may be wanted to raise the works; that, according to *Blondel*, the ditch is the place where the assail'd may make the greatest resistance, where they are most under cover, and the assailants can only enter in file; That in time of siege they may sally from thence either with horse or foot; That the cover'd way and detach'd works are by its means better sustain'd and defended; That the passage of it is easier defended by retrenchments and all other kind of stratagems; That in time of siege the cattle of the country may be drove in there, for the subsistence of the garrison; and the place is more easily to be succour'd. On the other hand, where the ditch is full of water, there is no defending the outworks but by passing over bridges of communication, subject to many inconveniencies;

encies; first, on account of their narrowness, which occasions great confusion; especially when the besieged are obliged to retire with precipitation; and it is easy for the besiegers to break them down, and overset their boats and pontoons; that when things are once come to that pass, the outworks are no longer to be supported; that there have been frequent instances at sieges of detach'd works having been lost, which might easily have been defended, had there been any possibility of sending them succours when they were first perceiv'd to be in danger: That in cold countries, when the ditch is frozen the place is liable to be surpris'd, and in hot ones the waters of the ditches breed unwholesome vapours, at least if they are not shifted from time to time.

The Chevalier *Tensini*, who prefers wet ditches to dry ones, makes reply to the greatest part of these objections. He says, That if the ditch happens to be frozen, 'tis only every day breaking the ice in the middle of it, for the space of about ten foot wide, and piling up the flakes one upon another on that side next the place, which when frozen together will make such a kind of wall as is difficult to pass; as is practis'd in northern countries: That the cattle may be turn'd into such cover'd ways and works as are not attack'd; but as neither these nor the dry ditch can afford sufficient pasture for them, there is always a necessity for magazines: That succours may be receiv'd

into the cover'd way, and sallies made from thence. That sallies made by infantry and cavalry in a ditch are merely imaginary exploits, because the enemy never comes there till he has perfectly establish'd his lodgment, and made several openings into it; that in the night-time he scatters the ground with * crows feet, and upon the counterfarp keeps cannon always ready charg'd † *à cartouche*. That when the ditches are full of water the place is better secur'd against a surprize, and in time of siege lets easily carried by assault.

Some Engineers are for having a little ditch, of about two or three toises wide, in the middle of the great dry one; *Blondel* says they are of admirable use, ' provided they are made ' wide and deep; not so near the counterfarp as for the enemy to fill them up by throwing in earth from their sap, and yet a sufficient space left betwixt them and the body of the place, for making retrenchments, traverses, and such other works as are usual and necessary for the defence of the ditch.

* A kind of large tenter-hooks, consisting of four spikes, each about four inches long, dispos'd in such a manner as fall which way it will to have three points downwards, and the fourth presented upwards; the intent of them is to cripple horse upon their march.

† A *Roulette* of a cylindrical form, made either of tin or canvas, of the same diameter with the bore of the piece, which holds both the cannon-ball, leaden bullets, old nails, and pieces of old iron of all sorts fit for the purpose.

These

These lesser ditches are not disapprov'd by any Engineers whatsoever, tho' some are only for making use of them, when necessary to receive and carry off the rain water; because they obstruct in some measure the retreat of the sallies made in the ditch, as well as prevent them marching out with any large front to attack the enemy, which is the great advantage the besieged have over the besiegers when the latter first enter the ditch to make their lodgment there.

M. *Blondel* and some other Engineers think it would be an advantage to have the ditch and counterscarp fill'd with * caponieres, † coffers, and conceal'd lodgments; some would have the caponiers cover'd, not to be plung'd into from the brink of the counterscarp; others would have them open, that the musqueteers within may not be blinded by their own smoke; some are for placing them before the flanks, others for having them run across the ditch, from the angle of the shoulder. M. *Vauban* makes them begin at the middle of the curtain, and carries them quite across the ditch, to serve likewise for a communication with the ravelins.

* A sunken lodgment usually made by the besieged in the ditch, when a dry one, and rais'd about two foot above it, with embrasures to fire thro' upon the besiegers, to repel them in their passage.

† A work much like the caponiere, only with a thin brick or stone wall, loopholed, instead of a parapet of earth.

M. Coeborn, the better to defend the dry ditch of the retrenchment of his bastion, makes underneath the counterscarp or terre-plain of the face of the bastion, a gallery or caponiere of masonry covered with a foot and a half of earth; that gallery is full of air-holes, to carry off the smoak, and has its passage divided by several doors at two or three toises distance. It serves likewise as a way to pass from one tower or orillon to the other; and to preserve a communication with the entrenchment, another gallery of stone-work, loophol'd, is carried from the salliant angle across the ditch, cover'd with planks and earth a foot and half thick; there is another almost of the same kind carried across the dry ditch from the retrenchment in the ravelin; besides which at the extremity of that ditch, on each side the retrenchment, are coffers of stone, loophold, and rais'd four feet above the horizon; they are cover'd with earth and planks, and have a small ditch before them from four to six toises wide.

There are very few Engineers who do not think ravelins before the curtains absolutely necessary, because till these are taken the enemy cannot pass the ditch to come at the face of the bastion; so that by their means he is kept at a distance from the place, and when he would approach it, they oblige him to advance step by step, by the frequent checks they give him, and the continual danger he is in of being enfiladed

filad
cove
ers b
disap
and
place
a we
a br
by t
thos
the c
very
ther
The
op.n
forti
belo
the
penc
ther
ness
S
lins,
best
is t
Tha
the
rave
be
reas
tack

*
fath

filaded or seen in reverse; besides which, they cover the ports and the flanks from the besiegers batteries in the field. Those Engineers who disapprove of them, object to their expence, and the great numbers required to defend the place which has them; that when the ditch is a wet one, there is no entering them but by a bridge, which when once it is broke down by the artillery, no more succours can be sent those in the ravelin, and farther, that when the enemy are once masters of it, it furnishes a very convenient place for bringing cannon thither, from whence to batter and ruin the flanks. The common practice however is against this opinion; there are very few considerable places fortified without ravelins, except *Palma Nova* belonging to the *Venetians*, *Groninguen*, and the Citadel of *Antwerp*; and it was the expence of constructing those detach'd works, rather than any indifferent opinion of their usefulness, was the reason of suppressing them.

Some Engineers make flanks to their ravelins, others none. The latter seem to be the best. *First*, Because a greater space of ground is taken into the same circumference. *2dly*, That when they are without flanks, one and the same piece grazes the entire face of the ravelin; and when there are flanks, there must be another to defend them. * The third reason is, that if the enemy would come to attack the face of the bastion, before he has taken

* The following sentence seems misplaced here, being rather an argument for the usefulness of ravelins in general.

ken the ravelin, those in the latter may raise a battery of a few pieces in the demi-gorge, to command the others in reverse, when they come to mount the breach; and the besiegers cannot possibly dismount those cannon with cannon, having no place to raise a battery, but must absolutely take the ravelin. The fourth reason is, that ravelins without flanks cover the place better, especially the gates, the curtain and the flanks.

Those who are for having flanks to their ravelins, say they defend better their neighbouring bastions, and prevent the making lodgments on the counterescarp, and that the angles of the shoulders become stronger thereby. In those places *M. Vauban* has fortified, he has made use both of the one and the other manner.

Some are for having the ramparts of the ravelins not above eight feet higher than the level of the field. *M. Coeborn* would have them only four feet above the horizon, but raises the salient angle of the parapet higher to prevent enfilades. Others again would have them only three feet lower than the body of the place, because when the ravelins are low, the enemy can raise cavaliers, and mounting cannon upon them, drive out all who should defend them. Those who are of the first opinion reply, that if those cavaliers are made near the ravelin, it is not to be done without a good deal of expence both

of

of time and people, and if they are a-far off, they must be rais'd to an extraordinary height to have that superiority over the ravelin; that the advantage of making the ravelins low, is that the enemy can never make breach in them from the field, besides which, they partake better of the defence of the place.

M. *Coeborn* gives the rampart of his ravelins a parapet of twenty feet wide at the top, and a banquet and terre-plain of seven.

Blondel and some others give no greater breadth to the ramparts of their ravelins, than is necessary for the recoil of the pieces on their batteries; others would have them wider, in order to retrench the breach.

Some Engineers have propos'd to make the terre-plain of the ravelins, and of all the rest of the out-works, even that of the cover'd way, only six inches above the surface of the water, that the besieged may find no ground to make their lodgment. *Coeborn* sinks the ditches of the retrenchments in his bastions, within half a foot of the level of the water; those of the ravelin the same; makes the cover'd way of the counter-scarp on the same level, and gives the latter a continued decline to the very brink of the water in the ditch. He pretends by this means to oblige the besiegers to carry the earth which is to cover them, the distance of thirty-eight toises in the ditches of the retrenchments of the

the ravelins, and in some places as far as eight and fifty toises. This without dispute is a considerable advantage, but it is only to be put in practice in places that lie very low; it would be work of too much labour any where else, as well as a troublesome business to dispose of the earth.

The Chevalier *Tensini* is for making low flanks at the extremity of the faces of the ravelins, to defend nearer at hand the passage of the ditch with great and small arms. Others condemn them, and say they may serve to cover the besiegers when they are making their passage. That those flanks are useless as soon as the enemy is lodg'd in the place of arms, near the retring angle, because from thence he can easily either oblige the besieged to abandon them by the fire of his small arms, or by throwing grenades, shells, or other fire works into them; besides which they give the enemy an opportunity of entering the ravelin through the gorge. *M. Vauban*, when the ditch is a dry one, contents himself with making places of arms there.

: The retrenchments and redoubts which most Engineers are for making in the ravelins, are generally approv'd of; nothing farther can be objected to them, but the expence of their construction, and of the additional men and ammunition necessary for their defence.

All

All think it proper that the retrenchments and redoubts should have revetments, that they may not be liable to be taken sword in hand: and that their ditches, if it is possible, should be dry ones, for those within to have it in their power every moment to get at the besiegers, to throw grenades amongst them, or to sally and disturb them in their lodgments. In that retrenchment of the ravelin, *M. Coeborn* makes besides, at the gorge of it, a caponiere of masonry covered with thick planks and earth, and before it a redoubt in the form of a bonet, and encloses the whole with a row of palisades.

What *Engineers* say in regard to ravelins, they say of counterguards likewise; the general intent of which is to intercept the view of the faces and batteries in the opposite flank from the counterscarp and field. Some of them give those counterguards a rampart wide enough for the troops to draw up in order of battle, to sustain an assault, and to retrench themselves there; others make only a parapet, with two or three banquets, that when the enemy become masters of them, they may not have ground to raise batteries. *Coeborn*, in his first method of a royal hexagon, allows only twenty feet for the width of the parapet of his cover-faces above, and from twenty eight to thirty three feet at the bottom. *Blondel*, for the same reason, would have them all of masonry, and countermined, to deprive the
besiegers

besiegers of all possibility of placing cannon there, after they have forced them.

Some Engineers, to save a part of the great expence of counterguards, place ravelins before the points of the bastions; it is certain those works are less expensive, but they cover the flanks only, and don't at all intercept the view of the faces.

All Engineers agree, that the counterscarp ought to have a revetment when the ditch is a dry one, and likewise that it is an advantage to have one, when the surface of the water in the ditch at the highest is a good deal lower than the terre-plain of the cover'd way; and that the only case in which a revetment is of no great advantage, is when the surface of the water is very near even with the terre-plain of the cover'd way. Those Engineers take it for granted at the same time, that the earth is of a sufficient consistence to support itself, otherwise there would be a necessity for the counterscarp's having a revetment to preserve both the breadth and depth of the ditch.

Engineers are all likewise agreed as to the usefulness of a cover'd way, tho' not as to the disposition of its parts; some would have it sunk into the counterscarp, others are for raising it above the level of the field, and more still are for taking one half out of the counterscarp, and raising the other above the level of the field; the last method is the best because in that the fire of the small arms grazes
the

the glacis well, and that of the besiegers cannot plunge into the cover'd way, whereas both the other methods are subject to inconvenience in one or other of those points. When cover'd ways were first in use they had no more than three toises in breadth, which was not ground sufficient for the troops to march and counter-march, appointed to defend them. *Blondel* is fallen into the other extream, he would have them from seven to eight toises wide, for the troops to draw up in order of battle there, by means of which extraordinary breadth they are more exposed to plunging shot from the field, and less protected by the work they cover; besides there is no necessity for the troops having so much space. The best defence of a cover'd way doth not always consist in maintaining the ground with obstinacy; the success of such a way of proceeding is too precarious, and the loss too considerable if it should not succeed.

The branches of them likewise are made several ways; some are for carrying them on in direct lines, others for making salient angles from space to space, or works of some other form that flank each other reciprocally.

To avoid being enfiladed, some make them indented, or with teeth like a saw, as the *Chevalier Tensini*; others are for having traverses in them from space to space; the latter is the best method for the purpose, but they ought not to be made to join the substance of the parapet of the covered way, as has been practis'd

by

by some Engineers, and the passage lie on the side next the counterscarp, because when the enemy have once made themselves masters there, they will be under cover of those traverses. The passage ought to lie between the traverse and the parapet of the cover'd way, and shut up by a merlon jutting out from the parapet. Some Engineers have another way of covering those passages, they cut away a space of four foot and a half within the parapet, or else make the branches of the cover'd way with doubles or returns to cover the passages. The former of the two last methods is only proper for covering the passages at the retring angles, which are either flank'd by the ravelin, or by the body of the place, but is of no use to cover those of the saliant angles, because the cavity is not seen from thence, and the besieg'd may lodge themselves there. To the second it is objected, that as fast as the besiegers advance their sapp on the head of the parapet, and lodge themselves on the crook'd return of the cover'd way, the besieged are obliged to abandon the great branch entirely, where they find themselves enfiladed. Whereas when each branch is in a direct line, the besieged may dispute their covered way inch by inch, because they can only be plunged into from the front, but never enfiladed.

The old Engineers made no places of arms at the retring angles of the cover'd way; at present

present all agree in the necessity of them, for flanking and nearer defending the branches.

Some would have lunets in them, the better to grace the glacis, and to maintain the cover'd way ; they even pretend, that by the help of those small works the besieged may raze any lodgment the enemy shall make on the palisade with ease, as often as he pleases. That the besiegers will find themselves under a necessity of attacking them, and when they have taken them can make no use of them. *Blondel* has made them, in his new method of fortification, for those very reasons, and likewise to prevent the flanks of his bastions from being seen obliquely from any part of the field.

M. Coeborn is satisfied with making small redoubts of mason work there, loopholed, a brick and half, or two bricks thick, covered with a row of palisades to prevent the enemy from opening them with a petard.

The better to sustain the cover'd way, on the glacis six toises before the place of arms, he makes coffers or caponieres, and pretends by defending them with small arms, and half-pikes, to keep the besiegers off from the place of arms, and to prevent them from throwing in grenades there. The inconvenience of those coffers is, that by means of wool-sacks, gabions, and fascines, the enemy may prevent their effects, and that it is not impossible either to ruin them with cannon from the field, or to demolish them with shells, as he raises them a foot
S and

274 *The safety, &c. of States,*

and half above the esplanade or glacis, and covers them only with plank and turf.

There are likewise various sentiments as to the manner of planting the palisades. *M. Vauban* has wrote a dissertation upon this subject, the most material part of which we have extracted, and shall here insert it.

‘ There are four several ways of planting
‘ palisades on the cover’d way; the first, and
‘ most ancient way, is to set them on the
‘ head of the parapet within two foot of the
‘ border, and rising three feet and a half above
‘ it. The good properties of these palisades is
‘ the keeping the cattle out of the cover’d
‘ way, and preventing the enemy from in-
‘ fulting it before the trenches are open’d. The
‘ bad ones are as follow. *First*, They serve
‘ as a mantelet to the enemy, and intercept
‘ the greatest part of the fire of the place,
‘ when they are lodg’d behind them. *Secondly*,
‘ They are easily cut down, as the enemy can
‘ march directly up to them at any time.
‘ *Thirdly*, There is no repairing those that are
‘ broken in the attack, without being exposed
‘ to the enemy at the same time. *Fourthly*, They
‘ are too fair a mark for the cannon, insomuch
‘ that the enemy before he comes to attack
‘ the cover’d way, can break down what part
‘ of them he pleases with his batteries, to open
‘ himself an entrance, which the besieged can
‘ no ways prevent, and for which reason the
‘ use of them is laid aside.

Blondel

Blondel had condemn'd them before *M. Vauban*, because, says he, 'tis easy for the besiegers to break down any part they please of them with their cannon, and to leave any part standing, to serve as a breast-work, by laying fascines against them, or other materials, to cover them from the enemy. The *Spaniards* formerly planted them in this manner, with which *M. Goulon* charges them in his Memoirs of Attack and Defence. See his objections to those kinds of palisades. ' The
' *Spaniards* set their palisades upon the pa-
' rapet of the cover'd way, which intercept
' half the fire of the place, and give the work-
' men an opportunity of making their lodgment
' with ease; tho' the soldiers, stupid by nature,
' neither know what they are about, nor whi-
' ther they are going; but at that time there
' being nothing more to be done but to march
' forward, they follow their Engineers and
' their officers, till running their head or sto-
' mach against the palisade, down drops the
' fascine at their foot, and thus the lodgment
' becomes traced out, which is afterwards per-
' fected without difficulty by the skill of the
' Engineer.

* ' The second manner is to plant them with-
' in the cover'd way, close to the parapet, and
' rising three feet and a half above it. The good
' properties of this second kind of palisades are,
' that such of them as are broken may be re-

* *M. Vauban*

276 *The safety, &c. of States,*

pair'd with safety, and under cover; the keeping off the cattle, and preventing the cover'd way from being insulted as before. For the rest, they have the same defect in common with the foregoing, for which reason they are not made use of at present.

The third manner is, To plant them upon the banquet, near the foot of the parapet, at a foot and a half's distance from it, measuring from the inside of the cross-bar to the summit of the parapet, which their points exceed by a foot. The good properties of this sort, are, *1st*, They are not to be cut down. *2^{dly}*, There is no leaping over them without great difficulty and danger. *3^{dly}*, There is scarce a possibility of their being damaged by the cannon, which can only take the points of them, can make no great splinters, never disfrange the whole frame, and very rarely plunge within the cross bar. *4^{thly}*, The possibility of taking away or replacing those which are wanting, as it may be done under cover. *5^{thly}*, They no wise incommode the cover'd way, standing close to the parapet, to which they are even an ornament. Their defects are, *1st*, The difficulty of placing the sand-bags, which cannot be done without exposing the person, or supporting them with a kind of trellis set behind; the one is difficult and troublesome the other too dangerous. *2^{dly}*, Supposing the row of sand-bags set upon the head of the parapet, you can only fire in a direct line before you, be-

cause

cause the interstices of the palisades and loopholes betwixt the sand-bags will not allow a slanting of the musquet to the right or left. 3dly, 'Tis objected to them, that the opening those barriers through which the troops appointed to sally are obliged to file off, occasions their being too much exposed, and prevents the sally having any great effect, which however doth not exclude the use of those barriers, being necessary both for the sallying and retreating of the horse, and likewise often for the foot; which defect therefore is to be considered as mingled with some good qualities. This method of planting palisades is practised in all our fortified towns.

The fourth manner is a new one, and has only been practis'd at three or four sieges, where they pretend it has answered well. They plant the palisade within four and a half, or five feet of the foot of the parapet, to which it is just equal in height, and cut barriers, and small openings of three foot and a half wide in it, at every ten toises distance. This kind of palisade has the good properties following. 1st, It is in still less danger of being shatter'd by the cannon than any of the former, as it is not seen at all by the enemy. 2dly, It can neither be leapt over, nor cut down, while the besieged defend it with resolution; for otherwise it is easier cut down than the former, because the enemy throwing himself in betwixt the palisade and the para-

278 *The safety, &c. of States,*

pet, is there half cover'd by the palisade itself. 3dly, The conveniency of replacing the broken ones under cover. 4thly, The easy ranging of the sand bags, which is likewise to be done under cover. 5thly, The opportunity of falling on a sudden, when least expected, by throwing themselves at once over the parapet, and retreating after the same manner. 6thly, The opportunity of making a better and more resolute defence of the cover'd way, by keeping close up to the palisade. This latter is very hazardous, and hardly practicable. The defects of this palisade are, 1st, Its being greatly exposed to the plunging fire of the enemy both on the front and flanks, as soon as they have gain'd the head of the parapet. 2dly, The exposing those troops who are resolutely to defend the cover'd way, to the uncertain fire of the rampart and ravelins which should protect them, whose parapets being much damaged at the time of the attack, 'tis scarce possible but those of the place must hurt their own people when the attack is made in the day-time, much more when made in the night; which together with the showers of grenades thrown in there by the besiegers, render the defence of those palisades excessively dangerous in the day-time, and in the night insupportable. 3dly, The greatly exposing the men betwixt the parapet and palisades, both to the bursting of the grenades, and to the danger

danger of not having it in their power to retire in time, when the enemy sallies from his places of arms to attack them. 4thly, The borders of the parapet are in a little time strangely broken by the sallying and retreating of the troops, who come in rather head than feet foremost; which defect however is not very considerable, and may easily be repaired.

M. Vauban says, that in the campaign in Holland, he saw another sort of palisade on the cover'd way at Nimeguen, upon the head of the parapet there, ' it was no more than a row of trees, whose stocks were set in the ground, having their principal branches sharpened as they happened to grow, from three to four foot long, and interwoven one with the other, resembling in that the lines of *Alexia*. It is indeed much more proper for retrenchments of that kind, than for the border of a cover'd way, having all the defects of the first and second fort, for which reason it deserves no place here.

' Some Engineers double the palisades of the places of arms in the retring angles, following the third and fourth method of planting them, in order to a more resolute defence of them. These were said to have answered very well at *Grave*, *Mayence*, and lastly, at *Keiserwert*.

' The third and fourth manner of palisading, are the best beyond dispute, but both one and

't'other have very great defects, though of the
 'two the last is to be preferr'd; because in that
 'a resolute defence of the cover'd way is least
 'hazardous, as those of the place may venture
 'in open day-light, upon occasion, to fire over
 'the heads of them who defend it, the latter be-
 'ing so much underneath them; but not in the
 'other method, where they are rais'd some-
 'thing higher. The best defence of the cover'd
 'way, in my opinion, doth not consist in obsti-
 'nately maintaining the ground, that advantage
 'is too dearly purchas'd, and, sooner or later,
 'you are sure to be driven out with loss. I
 'should rather choose to give up to the enemy
 'for a time, those parts which are most within
 'the command of the place, and after obliging
 'them to sustain the fire of the place and out-
 'works, and their defences well lin'd for the
 'space of half an hour or three quarters, then
 'to return into it again; such a fire given at
 'ease and leisure, without constraint, could not
 'fail of a great effect; it might perhaps be
 'possible for the besieged to maintain their
 'ground in the places of arms, by means of
 'double palisades, while at the same time,
 'the fire of the place acted upon the branches
 'of the salant angles on the right and left of
 'them: This fire, however, could not but
 'be extremely hazardous, even in the day-
 'time, as soldiers are awkward, and take but
 'little care how they level their pieces; for
 'which reason I hold it the best, at least the
 'securest,

‘ securest way to keep but a small number of
‘ men in the cover’d way, with orders to retire
‘ into the nearest places of arms upon the right
‘ and left of the attacks, where strong detach-
‘ ments should be kept ready to sally out on
‘ both sides, one over the glacis, the other a-
‘ long the cover’d way, and this to be varied
‘ and repeated whilst attended with any suc-
‘ cess.

‘ The right course to be taken, is to plant
‘ the upper palisade at the time of the turving
‘ the parapet of the cover’d way all about
‘ the place, to keep it in continual repair,
‘ and the lower range either to be laid by in
‘ the magazines, or piled up and cover’d with
‘ straw, and never to plant them before the
‘ time of siege, nor then, till the attacks
‘ are known, and before the front intended
‘ to be attack’d. There is no farther pro-
‘ vision necessary for that purpose; I should
‘ even think it unnecessary to double the pali-
‘ sade, except at the places of arms in the ren-
‘ tring angles, being the only parts that can be
‘ obstinately maintain’d; at least, there ap-
‘ pearing to me no others that are capable of
‘ it; and as to the upper palisades, they may be
‘ improv’d by disposing them in such a manner
‘ that the intervals may be equal to the breadth
‘ of the palisades, and driving in a tenter hook
‘ 3 inches long betwixt them. The cross bar
‘ of the palisade should be fasten’d with pegs, a
‘ foot or fifteen inches below the parapet, the
‘ head

282 *The safety, &c. of States,*

* head of the palisade rising nine inches above it;
 * sharpen'd to a point of twelve inches long,
 * and planted within six or eight inches of the
 * foot of the parapet; so that the horizontal
 * distance betwixt them, at the summit of the
 * palisade, will be a foot and half, exclusive of
 * the thickness of the latter; thus the soldier,
 * who fires over the head of the parapet, will
 * stand at two foot distance from it. Suppo-
 * sing then, that the sand baggs, when some-
 * thing pressed down, take up a foot in breadth,
 * the fusil, which is three feet eight inches in
 * barrel, will extend eight inches beyond them,
 * which is as much as need be desired on such
 * an occasion.

'Tis indisputable, that by enlarging the in-
 tervals betwixt the palisades, by farther ta-
 pering the points, and not making them
 higher than nine inches above the parapet, a re-
 medy is found to prevent the splintering of the
 palisade, and likewise for the inconvenience of
 not being able to slant or traverse the musquet
 sufficiently, as well as for the difficulty of rang-
 ing the sand baggs; however, in the late de-
 fences of towns, this last method has not been
 followed exactly, the bent nail or tenterhook
 has been omitted, and the palisades brought a-
 gain within four inches distance of one ano-
 ther.

M. *Coeborn* has given us palisades of a new
 kind, so contrived as either to be set up an end,
 or let down at pleasure, they are fix'd upon
 an

horizontal beam, which turns round, is about two toises in length, and supported by two spindle-posts fix'd in the ground. He has a great opinion of these palisades; first on account of the good husbandry of them, as they are never to be set up but at the time of attack. 2^{dly}, They are out of the reach of the enemy's cannon, as they are never seen, till the time of their making the assault on the cover'd way. All that can be said against them is, that if one of the posts or stakes happens to be broke down by a shell, a space four toises long must want palisades for some time.

Some Engineers are for carrying away all the earth round about the place, within the reach of musquet shot, till you meet either with rock or water; or if neither should happen, after digging three or four feet, the void space to be fill'd up with flints and stones, and cover'd only with a foot of earth thrown over them; the same thing to be done in the dry ditches. There can be no dispute, but the besiegers works would by this means be render'd extreamly difficult, but the expence of constructing the fortress would be encreas'd proportionably.

Some Engineers are for driving stakes into the ground, close to one another, and covering them over with earth. This can only be done in places near great forrests, and even there not without very great expence.

Some

Some Engineers say those counterscarps where there are no second ditches, must be lost the first attack, and for that reason, when the situation is low, would have second ditches made at the extremity of the glacis, as in that case the besiegers will not have it in their power to insult the cover'd way till they have pass'd them, which passage must be extremely difficult, being opposed by the whole counterscarp just at hand; and the making their lodgment on the glacis no less so, as the enemy will be obliged to rank off, in order to pass the bridges when they are coming to make their lodgment; beside the advantage of those second ditches furnishing a sufficient quantity of earth to raise and widen the ramparts of the works; others again think them prejudicial, as they are an obstacle to the sallies in their issue and retreat, as well as to the receiving of succours: They condemn them still more when they are liable to be drain'd, because when laid dry they afford a lodgment or place of arms almost ready made at the foot of the glacis.

Some Engineers at this day being persuaded that a place is no longer defensible, but must presently be taken, after the besiegers are once lodg'd upon the ditch side, because of the numerous train of artillery employ'd at present in the attacks of towns; and prejudiced likewise by the obstinate resistance made by some second cover'd ways in the late wars, look upon those works as the best of the whole fortification

when

where
the
ackn
cann
num
then
they
secu
mod
The
garr
tack
beca
van
vent
the
way
hav
grea
they
siege
haza
subj
pear
Coek
his
mak
A
that
who
of t
coun

When sustain'd by grazing lunettes, placed either at the saliant or retring angles. Others acknowledge these latter afford no mark to the cannon, but condemn them on account of the numerous and stout garrisons required to defend them as they ought; and because when taken, they furnish the besiegers with places of arms secure against all forties, and extremely commodious for attacking the first cover'd way. They acknowledge the necessity of a strong garrison, not only as the lunettes and front attack'd must be well furnish'd with troops, but because more troops will be wanting for advanc'd guards upon the right and left to prevent the besiegers coming and attacking upon the flanks those guards of the second cover'd way. They likewise own the necessity of having stout fellows, as those works require great resolution to defend them; for if once they are lost, 'tis impossible to drive the besiegers out again, without putting all to the hazard. By all we have been now saying on this subject of second cover'd ways, it plainly appears that the second counterscarp which *M. Coeborn* makes in his second method beyond his second ditch, is by no means capable of making a great resistance.

A great many Engineers say with *Blondel*, that it would be of great advantage, if the whole were countermined, both the ramparts of the place, the ditch, the outworks, and the counterscarp; those countermines to be of various

rious depths, and on different levels; and branches carried out extending a great way into the country; the mines to be correspondent to known spots above-ground, in order to spring either the nearer or more distant ones upon occasion, or even those underneath the chief works of the enemy's attack.

M. *Coeborn* proposing such methods of fortification as are only practicable in situations of very low horizons, would have counter-mines only under the ramparts of the body of the place. He makes two galleries in each wall, which is all he tells us, not choosing to impart his sentiments to the publick, either concerning the disposition or construction of them.

No Engineers condemn the use of mines, tho' some think it worth consideration, the great expence required to furnish the whole circumference of the place with them in the manner *Blondel* prescribes, and that they are not practicable in all situations. That such high situations are rarely met with as admit of the constructing them in the manner Engineers propose. That the soldiers dread of them doth not proceed so much from the examples of their great effects, as from a prepossession that it is not in the power of valour or courage, how highly soever exerted, to extricate them from the danger. Lastly, that the execution of them in time of action is liable to many inconveniences, which often frustrate their effects. That those which are to be sprung
beyond

beyond the glacis cannot do any great execution, because, take what measures you will, it is not possible to place the fourneaus directly under the line of the trenches: That the danger of them may be avoided by observing the following precautions; by opening the trenches as near the place as is possible, and pushing them on till you reach the foot of the glacis with such swiftness and speed, that the besieged may have no time to carry out new branches, or to load his mines, supposing he had time to make them: By placing only small guards of eight or ten men in the most advanced works, and those from distance to distance, leaving the rest behind ready to march out against sorties. By sinking a number of shafts in the grand place of arms, or last parallel, and from thence carrying out several branches directly to the counterscarp, the springing of whose fourneaus should overturn the whole ground, as fast as the trenches advance above. Lastly they say, that observing the same conduct in the ditches and the ramparts, all those formidable stratagems can only retard the taking of the place for a few days, and that if there have been instances of the defence of a place having been greatly prolong'd by mines; it ought rather to be attributed to the unskillfulness and backwardness of the besiegers, than to any great difficulties they were put to, to preserve themselves from their effects.

SECTION II.

Particulars to be consider'd by an Engineer in laying out the design of a Fortress.

IN order to adjust properly, and settle the plan of the Fortifications of a Place, several considerations are absolutely necessary, on which the number, form and substance of the several works must depend.

First, If the Prince is powerful, has but few places to fortify, and consequently can afford to be at a great expence for the construction, maintenance, and defence of that Place he proposes; in such case an Engineer should multiply the works on each front, giving them such form and substance as he thinks most conducing to a good defence, whatever it may cost the Sovereign.

He should act after the same manner when employ'd by a Prince of slender power himself, but having powerful allies, greatly interested in his preservation, and from whom he may promise himself all kinds of assistance, both for the construction, guard, and defence of the place he intends to fortify.

If a Prince is weak of himself, and without assurance of powerful assistance from his allies, prudence should direct the Engineer to engage in no expences beyond his finances; and in such a Prince's service never to undertake works which cannot be executed but at an excessive expence.

Secondly, When a place is expos'd to the attacks of powerful enemies, an Engineer should endeavour to augment its strength by adding as many works as the power of his Sovereign will admit of, or the finances he is pleas'd to appropriate to that expence.

If a place is out of all possibility of being besieg'd by a powerful army, a good body of a place, and good ditch are sufficient; of this kind are those places possess'd by the *European* Princes in the *East* and *West Indies*.

If a place has nothing to fear beyond the incursions of Banditti or Savages, or a few Marroders, whose object is rather plunder or contribution than making themselves masters of the place, it should be fortified in the simplest manner possible; it is sufficient, if surrounded with a curtain and small bastions, a narrow ditch, little rampart, and the rest proportionable.

Thirdly, The temper and constitution of those who are to defend it, and of those expected to attack it, are likewise to be consider'd by an Engineer; each nation has its peculiar talent in war, and one of the chief points of skill in a

General, is the knowing how to make the best use of that talent.

Some on account of their phlegm, great perseverance, and resolution, as the *Spaniards*, are extremely proper for the defence of a place where a continual fire is to be made from behind a parapet: When a place is to be defended by a people like these, nothing farther is necessary but that the works be good in their kind, capable of being defended, and not to be carried sword in hand; that is to say, the ditches in particular to be deep and full of water, or if they are dry, the walls to be very stout, high enough to be above the reach of all insults, a very substantial rampart and parapet, to graze the glacis well with their fire, and an open view on all sides.

Others by their natural impatience and forwardness, as the *French*, grow soon weary of that kind of defence, and prefer such works as are to be defended sword in hand: Where the garrison is to be composed of troops like these, there is no occasion for great exactness in the body of the place, but a necessity for good cover'd ways, and advanc'd pieces of chicanry, such as may require long labour and trouble on the besiegers part, to oblige the besieged to abandon, and very vigorous efforts to make themselves masters of them in any reasonable time.

Some nations are never dishearten'd by the tedious labours they are obliged to undergo,

in order to gain the enemy's works inch by inch, and had rather work hard four and twenty hours, than be exposed a single one to danger; when the besiegers are of this stamp, work behind work must be prepared to oppose them, accompanied with all possible chicanry, to augment and protract the difficulties of the attack.

Others are not capable of going through those tedious formalities, without growing weary and discouraged; when the besiegers are of this temper, an Engineer on the contrary need make but a few works to oppose them; such however as are proof against a surprize, or sword in hand, and accompanied with whatever may oblige the besiegers to advance step by step in their attacks; as good ditches and very high ramparts, yet not so high as to afford too fair a mark to the cannon of the enemy.

As to those populous nations who care not what numbers they lose in their attacks, provided they can but succeed, care must be taken to build such works to oppose them as may be proof against all efforts of sword in hand, escalade, or surprize; such as it would be excessively difficult, or rather impossible for them to make themselves masters of, without laying siege to them in all its forms.

Those who have never given themselves the trouble of remarking the different qualities nature has given different nations, will doubtlessly think these reflexions push'd too far, but if they will look into History they will find

what we are now advancing confirm'd by numerous examples.

Fourthly, Regard must be had to the purpose for which the Fortreis is design'd, whether it be for an offensive or defensive one: If it is intended to bar the entrance of a State, and there be no possibility for an enemy to penetrate without first making himself master of it, it is the duty of an Engineer to fortify it in such a manner, as may cut off all hopes in the besiegers of being able to carry it, without great expence of time, labour, and people. If the place is of no farther importance but only in regard to itself and its dependance, an Engineer should proportion the expence of the works to the revenue the Sovereign receives from the town; insomuch that if the revenue is inconsiderable, and the intention of the Prince in fortifying it is only to give the inhabitants some mark of his paternal care, the Engineer should fortify it after the best method, yet managing the whole with such œconomy, as not to straiten the Sovereign in his other more necessary expences.

If the Fortreis is intended for an offensive one, that is to say, is built for stowing provisions for the subsistence of an army, and such a quantity of ammunition as may be necessary for any intended expedition, and that enterprize perform'd, it is of no farther importance to keep the place; the Engineer should content himself with fortifying it in such a manner

as to be proof against all attacks either of surprize, or sword in hand: But if he has reason to doubt the success of that enterprize, and in case of such miscarriage, the loss or taking of those magazines may be of ill consequence to the State, affording the enemy the means of farther extending his advantage already gain'd, the Engineer, in such a case, ought to fortify it with as much care and caution as if it were the key of the State.

Fifthly, The advantages and disadvantages of a situation in general, are likewise to be consider'd, in order to have recourse to art, according as it may be more or less necessary.

If the air is unhealthy, the quantity of water insufficient, or in the besiegers power to cut off, it would be a folly in an Engineer to lavish vast sums to make such a Place exceeding strong, because either of the two defects we are now speaking of, is sufficient to oblige the besieged to capitulate, even tho' they were not press'd by an enemy.

An Engineer having a place to fortify, too small to contain a garrison capable of giving that army any disturbance who should leave it behind or on one side, in like manner ought not to be very intent upon multiplying its defences, because the enemy, if he pleases, may march on without being under any necessity of attacking it.

If a Place is subject to a command, an Engineer should have recourse to all that art can

furnish as a remedy for that defect, with more or less attention to the expence, as the place is of more or less importance.

If a Place is difficult of attack by open force, and easy to defend, or to explain myself better, if it is so advantageously situated as not to be taken but by famine, an Engineer to avoid putting his Sovereign to any unnecessary expence, should only assist nature where she is defective, but at the same time he ought to take particular care, that whilst he is desirous by this means to pay his court, he doth not leave it in the power of the besiegers, some way or other, to make an easy passage to the place.

If the situation of a place is such as easily to be succour'd at pleasure, there is no necessity for so strict an attention to the augmenting of its strength by multiplying the works, that single natural advantage exceeding all that art can bestow; experience hath convinc'd us by many instances, that the longest and most vigorous defences have been made by such towns as have had the opportunity of shifting their garrisons at pleasure, and where it was easy throwing in succours of any kind.

But where the situation is such, that it is impracticable either to throw in succours, or to shift the garrison after it is once besieg'd: If such a place is liable to be attack'd by force, that defect should be remedied by making an augmentation of good works, and such as may be capable of defending themselves.

Places

Places whose sieges may easily be rais'd, require no better condition of defence than such as may enable them to maintain their ground a few days longer than the time requisite for the Sovereign's drawing his troops together and marching to their relief. On the other hand, where there is no forcing the enemy to raise the siege, the Engineer should fortify the place in such a manner as to protract and draw out the attack to the utmost length, that fortune may have time to interpose in the besiegeds behalf, with some favourable accident.

An Engineer ought in like manner to augment the number of the defences, when the place may be besieged with any considerable advantage; that is to say, when the magazines of the besieging army are very near at hand, and their carriage easy to the army; or when in the neighbourhood of the place is found a sufficient quantity of provisions, forage, water, and fuel for the army's subsistence; and they are neither liable to be incommoded by waters in their Camp, nor by the prevalence of any unfavourable season. On the other hand, if all we have been now saying happens to be against the besiegers, nature having so particularly favour'd the place in this respect, it would be unnecessary there to employ the utmost assistance of art to enable the Fortrels to make a long defence.

The want of Stone, Brick, Lime, Sand, and Earth in a country, is a reason sufficient for not giving

giving a place all the strength it might be otherwise capable of.

The barrenness or fertility of the country may likewise be a motive for an Engineer to make the place more or less strong; as supposing provisions very scarce on the enemy's frontier, and the place capable of supplying them, that circumstance is sufficient to render it of importance, and on that footing the Engineer should regulate the fortifications.

The ease or heavyness of expence in constructing the works of a place, are likewise reasons which may determine an Engineer to enlarge or diminish the number of them, if the place is not of extreme importance.

Sixthly, An Engineer should consider the particular circumstances of the ground, whether advantageous or otherwise, to avail himself of the former, to remedy the latter, and to adapt such works as are most suitable to each; in this the skill of an Engineer properly consists; for the greatest part of what we have been otherwise saying, concerns not him alone, but the Minister and the Sovereign.

In laying out the design of a Fortification it is indifferent whether the whole be regulated by the interior or exterior side of the polygon. An Engineer with a competent skill in Geometry may take either way, as best suits the particularities of the ground, without being obliged afterwards to make any alterations in what he may have already fix'd and laid down by a former method.

When

When the fronts of a Fortification are of easy approach, without any particular advantages of situation, the lines of defence to be properly drawn, ought not to exceed musquet-shot; but when those fronts are any ways favour'd in their situation, more especially in a case of necessity, those lines may be farther extended, as when standing on the sea-shore, or border of a lake, great river, or morass, &c.

In polygons of a great number of sides, it is best fortifying *à lignes fichantes*, or in that manner where the lines of the faces produced fall within the curtain; not only for the sake of those advantages we have already mention'd, but also to prevent the angles of the bastions becoming too obtuse, and that the reciprocal defence of the bastions and ravelins may be less oblique. On the other hand, when the polygons have but few sides there is a necessity for fortifying *à lignes rasantes*, or in that manner where the lines of the faces produced terminate at the retring angle of the curtain, to prevent the angles of the bastions becoming too acute.

An Engineer should always proportion his flanks according to the ease or difficulty of the approach, or attack of those parts they defend; and both reason and experience have convinc'd us, that the best upon all occasions are those described by the cord of an arc whose center is the point of the opposite bastion.

As the shoulders are intended to cover the flanks there is no doubt but those flanks may be

be single and in direct lines, when they are neither liable to be batter'd from the field nor from the side of the opposite counterscarp; and on the other hand, when they are so exposed, there is an absolute necessity for giving them shoulders.

As it is certain the greater number of cannon the flanks will admit of to oppose those brought by the besiegers on the counterscarp, the more difficult will be the ruining those flanks; it follows that those are of the best kind, which have two thirds of the whole extent of their flank under cover, and the remainder for the substance of the shoulder: Being the side of an equilateral triangle, whose base is the extent of the flank; and a body of masonry of a circular form best resisting the efforts of cannon, it follows that is the most convenient one for the shoulder of every flank.

Custom at present having establish'd the use of a much greater quantity of shells than heretofore at the attack of places, there is no room to doubt but the artillery of those flanks whose batteries are constructed in the form of an amphitheater, must very soon be destroy'd by those machines; that they can be of no effectual use upon any occasion; and that the best way therefore is to confine ourselves to that single upper battery of *M. Vauban's*.

If a Prince has strong reasons for fortifying a place commanded by several rising grounds,
and

and it is impossible to prevent its being plung'd into upon the flanks, an Engineer must unavoidably have recourse to that method of making several cover'd vaulted batteries one above the other; that if the great guns on the upper flank happen to be dismounted, they may make use of those in the casemates for the defence of the ditch and of the breach.

In polygons of few sides an Engineer is under a necessity of making the angle of the bastion acute; in those of a mean number of sides, if he will fortify *à lignes rasantes*, he may make it a right angle; and in those of a greater number of sides, he may make it either right or obtuse, as he thinks most proper, and fortify either *à la rasant* or *fichant*. When this is left to the option of the Engineer, they generally give the right angle the preference.

The most perfect bastions are those of a middling extent; an Engineer should never make them little but when he is absolutely confined by the irregularity of the ground; and there is no advantage in making them extraordinary large but when they are intended as platforms for a great number of artillery; as when lying close to the sea-shore, they are to defend either the entrance of a harbour, or the anchorage of a road.

When within the body of a Fortress there are several convenient places for building magazines, and the excavation of the ditches furnishes more earth than is wanted to form the
ram-

ramparts, it is proper to make the bastions full; but if there are no good places for the magazines, and but just a sufficient quantity of earth to form the ramparts, there is a necessity for making them void.

On a rocky situation of a small extent upon the summit of an eminence, where there is a necessity for bringing the bastions forwards upon the declining sides of the hill, and either the seat of the curtain must be lower'd all around, or the bastions rais'd extremely to be nearly on the same level; to avoid that expence, it will be most convenient to detach the bastions from the rampart, at least to set them lower down, and to make communications by posterns. The upper town of Fort *Louis* is thus fortified.

When any one bastion of a place is weaker than the rest, being either easier of approach, or from some other circumstance; the best way, if there is no remedy for that particular defect, is to make a retrenchment in the bastion betimes, that it may be near equally as strong as the rest, and as capable of resistance.

Where a quantity of earth is to be found in the environs more than sufficient, and extremely proper for the works of the besiegers, an Engineer would act very indiscretely to make very high ramparts to such places; as all the cannon he could bring there could not much incommode them, having it in their power so easily to cover themselves by the plenty and
goodness

goodness of the earth; and those cannon likewise being seen from many parts of the field, must, with great ease to the besiegers, be render'd unserviceable for the whole siege in a very short time: as the enemy may begin to batter in breach as soon as they come within distance. In situations of this kind, an Engineer should bury his works in the ground, to be less seen from the field, and that the besiegers may not be able to make breach till they are lodged upon the ditch-side.

It is quite otherwise in regard to places, whose environs are on a soil where there is no going six inches down, without either meeting rock, or water. In attacking such fortresses, the besiegers not finding on the spot as much earth as is necessary for their works, but being obliged to go farther a-field to look for it, and consequently unable to carry on their approaches but at a very slow rate, and with great fatigue and danger: the Engineer, to encrease all these difficulties, should raise the ramparts of the place very high, that the cannon of the besieged may overlook the country all round, and oblige the besiegers to begin their attacks at a very great distance, and to make the parapets of their trenches and batteries higher and stronger than ordinary, not to be plung'd into or seen from the place. This is attacking the enemy on his weak side, or making the best use of a situation where they must want earth to cover them; and was what induced *Valperca*,
who

who drew the plan of the design of *Cottonere*, to make the ramparts and high; and those who have condensed upon this account, have made it evident they knew nothing of fortification.

In low grounds, where the ditch fill'd with water, one may spare the giving the works a revetment, if it is of a good consistence; but if it is gravel, sand, or turf, there is an absolute necessity for a revetment. The keeping such ramparts would exceed considerable expence of a revetment, and they would not be able to support themselves against a siege. In places of a high situation where there is no water to be had in the ditch there is an absolute necessity for giving the works a revetment.

On fronts of places standing close to the side, or on the border of a large lake or river, which there is no approaching but by vessels: cannon being the only means to sink them to the bottom, are therefore effectual for preventing their approach. As shot fired upon the water are less dangerous than those upon the land, the most advantageous way is to make the parapets just of a height to enable the guns to fire *en barbette*, to be able to sweep them on all sides wherever the enemy may present themselves, or attempt to do so. But at all the other fronts where there is a ditch, covered way, glacis, and whic

he design of *Malta* for ramparts and walls so have condemn'd him made it evident they

tion. ere the ditches can be may spare the charge of ment, if it is a rich soil ce; but if it is either there is an absolute nt. The keeping up of exceed considerably the and they would never selves against cannon in high situation likewise, to be had in the ditches, necessity for giving the

standing close to the sea- of a large lake or river, proaching but in large he only means of sending are therefore the most their approach; besides e water are less certain l, the most advantageous apets just of a height for ette, to be able to point rever the enemy's ships attempt to draw near. fronts where there is a lacis, and which are ac- cessible

cessible by land, the parapets ought to be four feet and a half high for the musqueteers, with embrasures made in them for the cannon, especially when those of the besiegers are mounted in a battery.

The parapets ought not to be of masonry, but where the place stands either on a very high rock, or where there is not a sufficient quantity of good earth to form them, and where the shot fired obliquely from below can make but little impression on the parapets above.

If by giving a great height to the ramparts to enlarge their command over the field, the foot of the faces, the ditches, counterescarpes and cover'd ways, become ill-defended, as must needs be the consequence; the Engineer in that case will be under a necessity of making a * *fausse-bray*, for placing cannon and musqueteers in, to defend those places from a nearer hand, and with a less plunging fire.

There is a necessity for doing the same thing at places situate on the brow of an eminence, where one is obliged to keep the ramparts up to a great height, in order to graze and defend all the slopes and avenues with their fire, which was the reason for making them at *Belgard* in *Roussillon*.

* A work much more used formerly than at present, built in the great ditch of the place, and rais'd about as high as the level of the cover'd way, consisting of a rampart and parapet, surrounding the body of the place, and of which the *tenailles* are a part.

In large places on a high situation giving the works a revetment would be great an expence, and where the ditch be sunk extremely deep to get betwixt and eight feet water in them; a faulx likewise absolutely necessary to defend the descent and passage. The great town *borough, Lubeck*, and several others in *Germany*, are fortified after this manner.

The fronts of such places as lie exposed and have neither counterescarp nor crenellations to defend them, as those on the brink of a morasse, river, lake or sea, ought to have bastions or brays, to serve them either as keys or batteries against the enemy's ships that may approach; in these particular cases faulxes are not to be condemn'd, but on the contrary extremely useful and proper.

Tenailles are always useful let them be what they will; but absolutely necessary in the fronts of irregular places, where the extent of defence exceed the extent of musquet fire.

When a place happens to be commanded by some rising-grounds, which are neither levell'd nor taken in, but whatever the position of the works, will still incommode the defence. 'Tis here an Engineer to keep the business of fight, and fortifications from being commanded in reverse, and plung'd upon those eminences, should have recourse to traverses, but likewise to cavaliers, as the effects of cannon are to be defended. When placed upon those kind of works

a high situation, where
 etment would be too
 where the ditches must
 p to get betwixt seven
 them; a fausse-bray is
 essary to defend the de-
 e great towns of *Ham-*
 everal others in Lower
 after this manner.
 ces as lie exceeding low,
 erescarp nor cover'd way
 e on the brink of a great
 ea, ought to have fausse-
 her as keys or for bat-
 y's ships that would ap-
 ar cases fausse-brays are
 out on the contrary, are
 oper.
 s useful let the fronts be
 bsolutely necessary before
 places, where the lines
 xtent of musquet-shot.
 ns to be commanded by
 hich are neither to be
 but whatever way you
 still incommode them:
 keep the buildings out
 ns from being enfiladed,
 , and plung'd into from
 d have recourse not only
 se to cavaliers, as little
 n are to be depended on
 e kind of works. If

If those parts where the ramparts ought to stand are deficient of earth, and likewise the environs of the place; if the excavation of the ditches cannot furnish them with a sufficient quantity, but they must be oblig'd to fetch it from afar; and lastly, if the expence of raising the ramparts to such a height as is necessary in those kind of situations, is found too heavy for the Sovereign's purse; the Engineer to save the greatest part of that expence, should content himself with giving them the usual height, and only make in each front one or two cavaliers, capable of containing a certain number of cannon to play upon the field, and which plunging into the besieger's works, may oblige them to make their parapets both higher and stronger than would have been necessary, if they had only the fire of the ramparts to guard against: Cavaliers are greatly advantageous in such situations, notwithstanding some Engineers have absolutely, but unadvisedly, condemn'd them.

Dry ditches are extremely good when cut in a rock, and made very deep, the place a large one, and the Prince able to maintain a strong garrison in it; on the other hand, wet ditches are best when the earth is of a kind easily removeable, the place a small one, and intended only to contain a slender garrison.

Ravelins with flanks are not good except when their faces defend too obliquely the glacis, cover'd ways, and the faces of the two bastions upon the right and left, which frequently hap-

pens in fronts of irregular places, w
curtain is of a length disproportionab
faces of the bastions, and one is ob
make the saliant angle very open for th
to cover the flanks, their shoulders,
curtain.

When a Place may expect a strong
as when the Sovereign is a very
Prince, an Engineer should make the
both of the outworks and the Place
cious, that the garrison may have i
power to make retrenchments there
defend the breaches; but if the gar
only be a slight one, and consequent
obstinately to sustain assaults, an Engine
give the ramparts as little breadth a
to the end that when the garrison
abandon'd them, and the besiegers lodg
selves upon the breach, they may not h
cient space there to raise batteries.

When any of the bastions of a Place
be commanded by an eminence in
having so fair a view of the faces, as
to make a breach in them from there
is a necessity for covering that bastio
counterguard.

If the two flanks whose object is th
of the two faces of a bastion, should
to the view of some rising ground i
as to be liable to be batter'd and ru
thence, it is absolutely necessary to p
velin before the point of that bastio

lar places, when the
isproportionable to the
nd one is obliged to
ry open for the ravelin
eir shoulders, and the
pect a strong garrison,
is a very powerful
ld make the rampars
nd the Place very spa-
may have it in their
hments there, and to
ut if the garrison can
nd consequently unable
ults, an Engineer should
ttle breadth as possible,
he garrison shall have
besiegers lodg'd them-
they may not have suffi-
batteries.
ons of a Place happen to
eminence in the front,
the faces, as to be able
em from thence, there
g that bastion with a
le object is the defence
ion, should lie so open
ing ground in the field
atter'd and ruin'd, from
necessary to place a ra-
of that bastion, which
the

the enemy may be necessitated to make them-
selves masters of, in order there to erect their
batteries against the flanks.

When the body of a Place itself is not
good, and the whole defence of it depends
upon that of the cover'd way; an Engineer,
in the retring places of arms there, should
make lunettes, with revetments and a good
grazing fire, annexing all kinds of chicanry and
stratagems which may contribute to its better
resistance.

Second ditches are absolutely necessary when
the situation is very low, and where the requisite
quantity of earth is not to be had for giving
the works a convenient breadth and elevation.

There are no Places where a second cover'd
way sustain'd by lunettes is more proper than
such as are accessible on one front only, whose
others are cover'd either by the sea, rivers,
lakes, morasses, canals, inundations, or by
precipices. As these latter cannot be at-
tack'd without the utmost difficulty, the be-
sieged may employ almost their whole garrison
in the guard and defence of that second cover'd
way, and maintain it resolutely, which is the
natural and true defence of those kind of works.

In regard to Places standing on rocky
eminences 'tis best following *Blondel's* advice:
* When I meet, says he, with any unevennesses
* in their avenues, I rather choose to cut
* them down into precipices, than give my-
* self the trouble of constructing works to for-
tify

* tify them, because such works might
 * enemy as so many steps or degrees
 * proach, as soon as they had made
 * masters of them.

When any one front of a Fortification
 pens to be a good deal weaker than the
 account of its being subject to some
 ments, and whatever advanced works
 made to render it equally strong, must
 tirely plung'd into from the same enemy
 the best thing that can be done is to
 tempt the making any work there
 counter mine, if possible, the whole cost
 of that front of the fortification: This
 in these cases, where works cannot be
 above ground without great defects, to
 them underneath, if the depth and nature
 of the soil will permit.

When places are accessible only by a
 neck of land, of a soil easily removed,
 at least fourteen feet above water, covered
 under the counterscarp are very good
 that avenue is of a rock so soft as to be
 terminated without much labour, like
Malta, no work to be made there can
 exceed it, especially as the expence is
 very great, the avenue being of so much
 tent; the shards of rock flying out on
 on the springing of the mine must great
 the besiegers; the making a lodging
 ruins be a work of great difficulty, and
 less labour to attempt to give vent to

h works might serve an
steps or degrees of ap-
ey had made themselves

t of a Fortification hap-
weaker than the rest on
ject to some command-
advanc'd works can be
lly strong, must be en-
n the same eminencies;
n be done is not to at-
y work there, but to
the whole counterscarp
tification: The best rule
works cannot be made
great defects, is to make
depth and nature of the

ossible only by a narrow
easily removeable, and
ove water, countermines
are very good; but if
ck so soft as to be coun-
ch labour, like that of
made there can possibly
the expence cannot be
e being of so narrow ex-
k flying out on all sides
mine must greatly annoy
king a lodgment on the
at difficulty, and an end-
to give vent to the mine;

to

to render it unserviceable, in hopes to secure
themselves from its effects.

Countermines in the ramparts of works are
likewise excellent when they happen to be
on a rock of that kind; and where it is ex-
tremely difficult making breach with cannon,
the rock running up as high as the cordon; or
at least so high, that the rubbish which may fall
from above is not a sufficient quantity to make
the ascent of the breach practicable.

Redoubts advanc'd beyond the glacis on a
soil like this, countermined and having a
communication with the cover'd way, both
above ground and below, are the properest
works for stopping an enemy's advances; he is
under an absolute necessity of attacking them
under ground, which he cannot do without
great difficulty and equal danger; 'tis by works
of this kind, those of any place should take in
and secure the possession of such little emin-
cies as are found beyond the glacis, which might
give any advantage to the besiegers.

There is nothing easier than to propose and
give the dimensions of works, and even to ex-
ecute them; but it is evident from all we
have been hitherto saying, that to apply them
properly is a matter of great consideration,
and 'tis this last kind of knowledge which
constitutes an Engineer: From which we
may likewise conclude, that no one general
system, to make use of a modish phrase, will
serve for all kinds of Fortresses, even tho' re-

310 *The safety, &c. of State*
gular ones; that an Engineer must have
at command, and know how to use
according to the various circumstances
places to be fortified: Lastly, that the
tors of new methods, who have laid them
as general or universal ones, have either
sincerity or judgment.

C H A P. VIII.

Of Order in the construction

THE construction of Fortresses
must necessarily take a long
time, both on account of the mag-
nitude of their works, requires great
consideration.

M. *Vauban* has very justly observed
‘ Errors in Fortification are like
‘ War, whether arising from the
‘ or from dilatoriness or expence in
‘ execution, a fatality still attends the
‘ in the original design such an
‘ chance to be introduced as may o-
‘ loss of the Place, so any delay
‘ consequences of not having taken better
‘ at first, or an accidental deficiency in
‘ or the bad workmanship, negligence
‘ defect of some work ill constructed may
‘ the same inconvenience; and any in-
‘ removal of the earth, want of skill

ineer must have several
ow how to vary them
as circumstances of the
Lastly, that the inven-
ho have laid them down
ones, have either wanted

P. VIII.

the construction.

of Fortresses, which
y take abundance of
of the magnitude and
requires great previous

y justly observ'd, 'that
on are like Errors in
g from the plan itself,
or expence in the exe-
all attends them; for as
gn such an error may
ced as may occasion the
any delay the conse-
ng taken better measures
al deficiency in the funds,
nship, negligence, or de-
constructed may occasion
ce; and any inconsiderate
want of skill in mason-
ry,

' ry, not understanding toise-measurement, an
' ill-concerted disposition of materials, besides a
' thousand other little faults and neglects into
' which one is perpetually falling, never fail to
' swell the expence a fourth, a third, some-
' times half as much again as the real value
' of the works: Defects the more worthy con-
' sideration, as the Sovereigns at whose expence
' they are committed, always pay ready mo-
' ney and high prices for faults of other folks
' making, yet which none but themselves can
' repair. To these very defects it is owing,
' that the charge of the works so constantly
' exceeds the estimate, and that 'tis so hard to
' make them tally, that one may venture to say
' it never happens, which tho' it be a matter
' of some difficulty is by no means a thing im-
' practicable.

Considerations previously necessary to the
construction of a Fortress are,

First, A sufficient quantity of treasure in
bank to answer the great demands of the ex-
pence.

Secondly, The Persons to be employ'd in the
execution of the works.

Thirdly, The order to be observ'd in conduct-
ing them.

We shall not enter into any particular detail
upon these three heads, a whole volume would not
suffice for that purpose: And M. *Vauban* in the
Memoirs he has left behind him, has said almost
all that is to be said upon the subject; we shall

only say just as much as is requisite to the importance of these considerations, and accidents which attend the neglect of them.

SECTION I.

Of the necessary Funds.

OF all the taxes which Sovereigns lay upon their people, this is the most necessary. Whatever they furnish towards the construction of a Fortress returns to them again, to advance it only to receive it back in the full and able enjoyment of their effects, which could not be preserved to them without their contributing to this extraordinary and necessary expence of the State.

This tax should be levied before the commencement of the undertaking; to prevent the collecting of the money while the work is going on, would be too tedious and slow. A stoppage or failure in punctual payment to the workmen and undertakers would protract the construction to a great length, and might be a bad one at last. The best workmen would leave it, the bad only stay because not sure of finding others to find employment elsewhere; for this reason a Sovereign should never undertake to build a Fortress till he either hath the necessary funds in his coffers, or knows where to get them; and if it is not possible for him to have the whole ready before he begins, he

of States,

requisite to show the
considerations, and the ac-
neglect of them.

IN I.

ary Funds.

ch Sovereigns impose
this is the most just.
wards the construction
them again, they ad-
it back in the peace-
effects, which could
without their contri-
nary and necessary ex-

ried before the com-
rtaking; to wait the
while the work is car-
tedious and slow; any
actual payment of the
s would protract the
length, and make it a
workmen would quit
ause not sure like the
t elsewhere; for which
d never undertake to
er hath the necessary
knows where to find
ffible for him to have
he begins, he should
confi-

by the means of Fortresses. 313

consider what he can depend upon furnishing
annually, and take his measures accordingly.

If that annual sum is small, and the work
such as would require a very long time to
finish, it would not be prudent to undertake
it; it would be but a fruitless labour at last, and
consequently money thrown away; for not
only the limits and interests of State change
frequently, and in little time, but the wisest
maxims are no longer pursued than while those
who have the principal management of affairs
find a particular satisfaction and interest in so
doing: If a Sovereign falls short in his de-
sign, his successor is generally but ill inclin'd to
finish works, how important soever, the chief
glory of which is to redound to his predecessor;
first they neglect them, then discontinue them,
and when they have been left off for a time,
they look upon them at last as works of very
little necessity. How many towns and other
works do we see left imperfect from no other
cause, and which yet are of real importance.
They never cast their eyes towards these For-
tresses till they have an immediate and absolute
occasion for them; and the first expences are
generally thrown away, because the Engineer
who projected and drew the plan of the design
being no longer alive, another is to be employ'd:
To finish such works there is a necessity not only
for a very able and skilful person to divine and
unravel the intentions of the former Engineer, but
likewise for an honest man, who will be content
to

to take up the clue there, and work upon an
 design, preferring the interest of his Sovereign
 who employs him to the dictates of self-interest.
 without both these qualities the second Engineer
 will neither be able nor willing to enter into
 the spirit and views of him who first proposed
 the design, nor even give himself the trouble
 to examine it; but making it his policy
 that the way of attack is chang'd from what
 was formerly, his vanity will put him upon
 some project the very reverse of that
 of the first, without any regard either to the
 expense, or time required to put it in
 execution. I have even known it proposed
 to destroy works which have been far advanced
 and construct others less expensive; and by this
 means it comes to pass that those places
 where the first works have been discontinued thro' the
 want of the funds, always cost infinitely more
 than others. What makes such Engineers so
 contrary to their proposals is, that the person who
 thus runs counter to and condemns, can say
 more; and those who have the authority to
 decide it have not a sufficient insight into the
 practical part of the art, to weigh the
 arguments on both sides. If the second
 Engineer happens not to finish entirely what
 the first proposed, and a third takes it up, the same
 happens over again, and the fortification
 of such a place becomes a jumble of works
 one upon another without rhyme or reason
 several expences of all which works ad

work upon another's
 rest of his Sovereign
 dictates of self-love;
 the second Engineer
 willing to enter into
 n who first projected
 himself the trouble
 ing it his pretence
 hang'd from what it
 will put him upon
 verse of that before
 either to the ex-
 to put it in execu-
 n it proposed to de-
 een far advanc'd, to
 nsive; and by this
 t those places whose
 ed thro' the failure
 infinitely more than
 Engineers so hardy in
 e person whom they
 condemn, can speak no
 ve the authority to
 cient insight into the
 to weigh the argu-
 If the second Engi-
 sh entirely what he
 it up, the same thing
 the fortification of
 ble of works heaped
 rhyme or reason, the
 ich works added to-
 gether,

gether amount to a prodigious sum, infinitely exceeding what it ought to be. Examples might be produced upon this head. 'Tis therefore the interest of the whole State that fortresses should not be constructed at several times, or by piece-meal; for which purpose they ought not to be begun, till there is a sufficient fund ready to compleat them.

SECTION II.

Persons necessary for the Execution of the Design.

THE necessary persons, for executing the design of a fortress are,

First, Artificers and workmen in their several kinds.

Secondly, Engineers to give them the necessary draughts, to trace out the works, to examine the materials they make use of, to have an eye to their manner of working them, to measure the works, to inform the Minister of the present condition of them, and to conduct the whole to perfection.

Thirdly, Treasurers to pay both the one and the other. Surveyors to provide what is wanting, and to decide any differences which may arise between the workmen, and the inhabitants of the place and neighbourhood. Above all a Comptroller, to take care to remit the funds

as

316 *The safety, &c. of States,*

as fast as the works advance, to send orders to the Engineers and Surveyors; to give an account of the whole to the Sovereign, and to receive his commands.

Of the Workmen.

There are two sorts of workmen made use of in fortifications; one for the construction of the Places themselves, the others for works of attack and defence.

Be the country what it will, you can never want workmen to construct a fortress, unless it be of such a magnitude, and in such haste to be finish'd, that a very extraordinary number is required; in which case 'tis in the power of the Sovereign, giving them a reasonable price, to oblige not only those of the Place itself, but likewise the people of the neighbourhood to come and work there. Fortresses being built for the security and defence of the whole State, 'tis for the interest of the publick, that such works should have the preference of those intended for the use and convenience of particular persons only. This was the practice of the *Roman* Emperors; but care must be taken to pick out such only as are diligent and capable of the work; if diligent, they will not throw away their time; and if capable, they will make no works but such as are good; and thus delay will be avoided of all kinds. With these principal workmen you may
join

join the peasants and foldiers, to assist them in making such works as require neither practice nor experience.

As to those intended to be employ'd in the works of attack and defence, and who are comprehended under the name of Sappers and Minors, they ought to be kept in constant pay, as those kind of works require particular practice and experience; besides you could not otherwise be certain to find them when you want them, and it would not be fair to press any into that service where the danger is so great.

To manage rightly, these workmen, or rather foldiers, ought to be of the number of Artisans who either serve, or are capable of serving in the works of fortification.

Of Engineers.

The art of fortification is an art which stands in need of so many others, and whose object is so extensive, and its operations accompanied with so many various circumstances, that it is impossible for a man to make himself master of it by experience alone, even supposing him born with all the advantages of genius and disposition possible for the knowledge and practice of that art. We do not pretend to deny that experience is of greater efficacy than all the precepts in the world; but it has likewise its inconveniences as well as its advantages; its fruits are of a slow growth, and whoever is content with pursuing
only

only that method of instruction, seldom knows how to act upon emergencies of all kinds, before old age incapacitates him from exercising his employment. Experience teaches us through the means of those errors we commit ourselves, what theory teaches us at others expence.

The life of man being so short, and opportunities of practice so seldom happening, 'tis certain nothing less than a happy genius, a great share of theory, and intent application join'd to experience, can make him one day shine in his profession. From whence it follows, that less than the three first of those four qualities should not be a recommendation for the reception of a young gentleman into the body of Engineers.

The fundamental sciences, and those absolutely necessary, are arithmetick, geometry, meehanicks, hydraulicks, and drawing; without arithmetick it is impossible to make a calculation of the toisement, and to keep account of the disbursements made or to be made, nor without it can an exact computation be made upon any occasion whatsoever.

Without geometry there is no such thing as laying down a plan or map with truth and exactneis, or settling a draught of a fortification; or calculating the lines and angles so as to make a just estimation, in order to trace them on the ground, and to measure the surface and solidity of their parts.

Mecha-

M
mac
pove
whet
gests
part
Ingir
thing
pract
posed
of qu
a boe
tion;
sham
no ot
mone
Hy
from
a cer
occaf
He
selves
never
and o
which
neces
It
know
ticks
be wi
of th
to pu

Mechanicks teach us the proportions of the machines in use, and how to raise or lower their powers upon occasion, and likewise to judge whether those which our own imagination suggests to us will answer in the practice. This part of the mathematicks is necessary for an Engineer, not only to prevent his proposing any thing of that kind himself which may be impracticable, but likewise to avoid being imposed on by the fooleries or pretended inventions of quacks, who after copying a machine from a book, will give it you for their own invention; a people, generally speaking, proof against shame even when detected, and who are under no other concern but how to trick those of their money, who are simple enough to credit them.

Hydraulicks teach us how to conduct waters from one place to another, to keep them up to a certain height, or to raise them higher upon occasion.

How fluently soever we may express ourselves either in speaking or writing, we can never give so perfect an idea as by a draught; and often in fortification both are wanted; for which reason the art of drawing is indispensably necessary for Engineers.

It would likewise be proper they had some knowledge of the other parts of the mathematicks and of civil architecture; and it were to be wished they knew something of all the rest of the sciences. Rhetorick would assist them to put the narratives they are often obliged to make

make into a proper method. Grammar teach them to make use only of proper terms and expressions. Natural Philosophy enable them to make a judgment on all the different materials, and teach them to penetrate into the causes of their good and bad qualities; it would teach them likewise to discover the qualities of the air, whether wholesome or dangerous, and the different properties of water, without which it is not possible for them to judge whether a fortress will be a healthy habitation. History would furnish them with examples to confirm the propositions they advance, and to defeat those which in their judgment ought to be refuted. Those who have not applied themselves to the sciences, without doubt will say we require too much of our Engineer; that the understanding and memory of one man is not capable of so many different kinds of knowledge; but when they shall have been inform'd, that all these sciences have a chain or connexion among themselves, that there are some things which are common to them all, and that one giving light to, is an introduction to the easier learning of another, they will surely allow the thing to be possible, the rather as we do not require that an Engineer should excel in every one of those sciences. We only desire that he should not be entirely ignorant of them, otherwise what we propose would be impracticable: For if as *Vitruvius* says, it is a difficult matter to find in every age a person excellent in any one profession, how

is it to be expected that an Engineer should be master of all those accomplishments, any one of which is with so much difficulty acquired.

It is a law wisely ordain'd, to admit none as Engineers who have not been first examin'd in those Sciences that are absolutely necessary.

Marshal *Vauban* was of this way of thinking:

* 'Those young Gentlemen, says he, who would
' introduce themselves to be employ'd as Engi-
' neers in the Fortifications, should be examin'd
' publicly, and oftener than once, not only in
' what relates to Arithmetick, Geometry, and
' Drawing, but likewise in all the other most
' necessary branches of the Mathematicks.
' After which I should be for obliging them to
' pass a year or two of probation in Places
' where there are large works, to see the ex-
' tent of their genius and application, and what
' progress they make; and when that time
' shall be expired, and they have been exa-
' min'd over again both in the theory and prac-
' tice, they may then be received into the rank
' of † Seconds: But if after having pass'd thro'
' their Noviciat, they shall appear not fit for
' the purpose, they may be withdrawn from
' thence, and have some employment given
' them in the Infantry, where what they have
' learnt will be of great service to them.

That second examination in theory and practice proposed by the Marshal, cannot but pro-

* *Le Directeur des Fortifications.*

† *Or Practitioners.*

duce good effects; it will engage them to persevere in their studies and application; by this means will be known the real disposition of each towards the business, and those may be got rid off, from whom no good is to be expected.

The Marshal's sentiments on the choice of chief Engineers are no less judicious, 'it is never proper, says he, to give the chief direction to young Engineers, who have not serv'd a sufficient time under such of the first rank as are men of capacity, and thoroughly vers'd in the business, nor to charge them with a very heavy work at first, but to enlarge their task by degrees, till they grow perfectly well settled and confirmed; the rather, as the most experienced find it difficult enough to acquit themselves tolerably of their charge; betwixt the variety of the works themselves, and the different ways of conducting, the most skillfull often find themselves at a stand.

In another place he says, 'tis a charge requiring infinite care, constant activity, great good conduct, good sense, and experience in Earth-works, Timber-works, and Masonry, with a perfect knowledge in all the several kinds of materials and their prices, and the different capacities of workmen: Qualities all so necessary in the conducting large works, that wherever they happen to be deficient, one may assure one's self the least ill consequence

quence that can ensue will be delay, a tedious and wearysome construction, a number of ill-made works, and always abundance of superfluous expence; accidents all unavoidable, where the persons charged with the conducting the work are men of but a midling capacity.

As the chief Engineers ought to be chosen out of the most knowing, the most diligent, and most experienc'd of the Subalterns, in like manner the Directors ought to be chosen out of the chief Engineers.

To acquit himself well of that duty, he should understand perfectly well these seven principal parts of it.

First, The purposes for which particular Places are fortified; that is to say, the circumstances which render those Places of importance to the State.

Secondly, What Situations are proper to be fortified, with their good and ill qualities.

Thirdly, The different forms which Fortresses are capable of; that is to say, the several methods of Fortification.

Fourthly, The quality of the several sorts of materials made use of in the execution of the design, and the particular method of working them, in order to make good works.

Fifthly, All the various ways by which a Place is to be attack'd.

Sixthly, The manner of guarding, maintaining and defending a Place against attacks of all kinds whatsoever.

324 The safety, &c. of States,

Seventhly, How to store a Fortress; that is to say, to furnish it with the quantity of men, provisions and ammunition necessary for its defence.

These are the seven fundamentals or bases on which Fortification is grounded and establish'd; without the knowledge of which it is impossible for any one to execute the office of a Director, without committing an infinity of errors, to the prejudice of the State and Sovereign. Marthal *Vauban* says, that Employ supposes an Officer of great experience, very knowing in the art of war, and always one of the most ancient Engineers.

The offices of an Engineer in the Town and in the Field are very different. A man may be qualify'd for the one and not for the other.

Without entering into a particular detail of their difference we shall say after M. *Vauban*, that the necessary qualifications for a Field-Engineer are skill, courage, great quickness, accompanied with a solid judgment; without these qualities they can never be useful in their stations: If they have but little skill, they commit an infinity of faults through incapacity of acting better; if their hearts are not good, the greatness of the danger will astonish them, and disorder their senses when they have most occasion for their assistance; and tho' at other times they may be men of the greatest abilities,

Memoires sur le conduite des Sieges.

not

‘ not possessing themselves at that juncture, they are capable of nothing. If they want quickness and judgment they will not be able to find expedients upon extraordinary occasions, nor to prevent or remedy inconveniences which may happen: Besides these qualifications abovemention’d, that profession requires a constant application and consummate experience in the principal parts of war. Now if we so seldom see great courage, wit and judgment united in the same person, it would be still more extraordinary to see that person escape the violence of our sieges, and survive long enough to acquire the other two qualifications: This being supposed, we ought not to wonder if amongst so many who imagine themselves Engineers, and call themselves so, we find so few able men, and who really are such. The profession is grand and noble, but it requires a peculiar genius and a constant application for many years, with which the hard duty and perils of our sieges but rarely agree.

To the qualities abovemention’d must be added activity and vigilance, both which are absolutely necessary in all operations of war, but especially in the attack of such places as are in expectation of succours. The besieged must have no time allowed them for consideration, one hour lost at such a juncture is two at least; nay the loss of a minute may be irreparable. ’Tis by their activity and vigilance that

326 *The Safety, &c. of States,*

Engineers often bring the besieged to capitulate abundantly sooner than they would have done if those Engineers had not with such haste pushed on the attack. Want of vigilance and activity often proceed from irresolution, and that from weakness of capacity.

The insufficiency of a chief Engineer may either be the occasion of a town's not being taken when attack'd, or of that being taken in which himself is besieged; the truth of this art consists in knowing how to overcome all obstacles he meets with in an attack, and to throw new ones in the way of the besiegers, in the defence of the smallest places.

It would be needless to expatiate upon the necessary qualifications of Treasurers and* Intendants, we shall only repeat what *M. Vauban* says as to the choice of the latter: 'it is extremely proper that the Intendants of the Fortifications should likewise be so of the † *Police*, of *Justice*, and of the *Finances*; because the uniting those offices gives them authority, credit, and the means of providing for the many pressing occasions which frequently happen in works of this kind; where the delay might be prejudicial if what was wanting could not be furnish'd in the Country, without being obliged to expect orders from Court.

* *Surveyors*.
† *Officers in the French Civil Establishment.*

The

' The Fortifications of Places, says the Marshal again, being Royal Works, built for the defence of the States, 'tis indisputable that the first officers who should have inspection over them, are the Sovereigns of the towns themselves, being the Persons most interested, as as well as their principal officers.

The person to whom is entrusted the care of the Fortifications of a State should be a man of great abilities, with a competent skill in that art over which he presides, to enable him to judge of the merits of the several members of that body, to employ each according to his particular talent, and to do justice to all in the distribution of his Sovereign's favours.

Of the Appointments of Engineers.

As the office of an Engineer requires great natural qualifications both of knowledge, study, and application, it is but reasonable that the pay should be proportion'd to that merit which is to be the qualification of the person employ'd; he must be at an expence for books and instruments for his instruction, as well as for many other things; and that he may be at liberty to pursue his studies with application must not be put to shifts for necessaries: It should likewise be consider'd, that if an Engineer doth his duty, be his station what it will, his fatigue must be very great, and to dedicate himself wholly to

that duty, he should be divested of all other cares.

It were likewise but reasonable that Engineers would have some extraordinary appointments when they are to be employ'd in enlarging the Fortifications of a Place, or in rebuilding or repairing such works as require a more than ordinary care and exactness. Something of this kind, as I am told, is the practice in *Spain*, where Engineers have an allowance of so much in the pound out of all monies expended on the King's account. In *France* the King sometimes makes them gratifications, or raises their salary when their work is done; but present rewards are more effectual than those in expectancy only, which do not always fall to their share who bore the burthen of the labour.

Of Subordinary Discipline.

Of the Subdivision of Persons employ'd in the Fortifications.

Discipline is a part most absolutely necessary, both to be establish'd, and observ'd, throughout all the military branches of a State.

The first part of this discipline consists in the division of one corps into several, and the subdivision of the latter into others still less; without this, it would be impossible in so great a number of workmen to avoid disorder and confusion, the usual cause of dilatoriness in works.

In the construction of Places, that corps of workmen is divided into several others, who are called bands; the first of whom is called the foreman, and who is to have an eye over the rest in carrying on the work: We shall not enlarge upon this article, the practice is sufficiently known.

The band of workmen call'd Sappers and Miners, entertain'd chiefly to serve at the attack and defence of Places, should be divided into as many other companies as the State has frontiers like to be visited by the war; each of these companies again should be divided into several lesser ones; that done, it will be easy upon occasion either to separate them, or to draw several of them together in those parts wherever the stress of the war shall happen to be, and where a great number may be wanted for the attack of Places.

The officers of each of those companies should be Engineers, and as it is a leading circumstance to the success of any action that the soldiers and their officers should be acquainted with each other before-hand, and 'tis from the Engineers that the former are to receive orders for the works of attack, defence, and construction of Places, 'tis evident the latter ought to be charg'd with the conduct and command of them; to give it to others were a superfluous expence absolutely unnecessary, and even to the prejudice of the service; for obedience to a temporary command, and that like to be but of a short duration,

tion, is never so entire, so ready, and so exact as when paid to him from whose command we can by no means escape. Engineers are the natural officers of workmen, ancient and constant usage has confirm'd the practice.

If it be objected that the care and management of a company is a business which would break in upon the studies of an Engineer, and divert his application, it may be answer'd, that a company of workmen is not like a company of soldiers; the better pay of the former, and profits of their work makes their condition so easy, that they can furnish themselves with whatever they want without the inspection of an officer, and fall more readily to their duty.

'Tis from amongst these Engineers or corps of officers of the workmen, according to their age and capacity, that as many as are wanted are taken, to look after the keeping up of the works in Places, or after the repairing and rebuilding them, in the same manner as Town-majors are taken out of the corps of Infantry; and in the working time and season, the corps of workmen on any part of the frontier, may be distributed and set to work upon any of the places in that neighbourhood, proportioning their numbers to the business, and that work done, rejoin their companies. The soldiers and officers may likewise be employ'd there, the first as workmen, the latter as Engineers, all under the command of the Engineer in chief and the Director, in the same manner as the officers and
soldiers

soldiers
majors
nonier
of the
the K
service

Son
Engin
and th
neers
lery,
know
them
unitin
each
you
ties in
of ou
easier
selves
to cor

If
these
in th
of ho
a gre
numb
in a f
are b
the m
but
great

Soldiers of a garrison are under the command of majors of the Place. In like manner as the canoniers and bombardiers have always the officers of the artillery to command them, agreeable to the King's order for establishing uniformity of service throughout the army.

Some are of opinion, that the two corps of Engineers and of Artillery ought to be united; and there is this to be said for it, that Engineers ought to understand something of Artillery, and Artillery-Officers should have some knowledge of Fortification, for both to acquit themselves well in their employments. But by uniting both into one corps, the knowledge of each man's duty would become so diffused, that you could expect only men of ordinary abilities in either profession; for the more the object of our researches is limited and confined, the easier it is fathom'd by those who apply themselves; whereas vast objects require vast geniuses to comprehend them, and such spirits are rare.

If Teachers were appointed to each of these principal corps, as is practised at present in the regiments of artillery, such a number of hopeful youth might be form'd as would be a great benefit to the service; for in a large number a good choice is much easier made than in a small one. All the world knows, enough are born with dispositions and inclinations for the most useful and necessary arts and sciences; but many wise men have remark'd, that the greatest part of those advantageous talents
are

are lost to the State, for want of the possessor's having means or opportunity to cultivate them.

To avoid all disputes and difficulties amongst officers of the same corps, it is necessary, at the time of their establishment, to enter into a detail of their several employments, and to make a regulation accordingly, that every one may know what belongs to his department, and how far his functions extend. But as 'tis our intention to be brief, we shall say no more on this head.

Of Exercise.

'Tis by exercise that the workman learns his business, and by long practice that he becomes expert in it.

As all workmen employ'd in buildings of any kind, may serve very well for works of fortification, it is certain excellent hands may be pick'd out from amongst them, without being at the trouble of training them up one self: But as to those intended for works of attack and defence, the case is not the same. Such artificers as terrass-makers, masons, stone-cutters, quarry-men, carpenters, cart-wrights, smiths, &c. are the properest persons, but with this skill of their's to make them capable of good service, both exercise and practice will be required. Of these two means the first is the best; if the second only is used, the practitioner can never become expert

exper
and
vice.

Th
or ra
being
quire
the u
them
more
bour
endur
This
to w
struc
up th
cise
dime
at lie
fictit
to t
made
defen
servic
likew
The
rise
are
this
fapp
may
want

expert till after the commission of many faults, and all at the expence of the Prince's service.

These workmen are properly speaking soldiers, or rather both one and t'other; their business being either fighting or working, as occasion requires: The first exercise to be taught them is the use of their arms, the next thing is to keep them to their business, not only to make them more capable of it, but to accustom them to labour and fatigue, to enable them the better to endure those of a siege, which are very great. This is easily to be done; 'tis only setting them to work preferably to others on new constructions, rebuildings and repairs, and keeping up the works of a place. The third kind of exercise is the instructing them in the several forms, dimensions and properties of works to be made at sieges; to which purpose during peace, some fictitious siege should be carried on from time to time, where all those works should be made, which are to be met with in attacks or defences: This last exercise will not only be of service to the new but to the old workmen likewise, and even to the officers themselves. These kind of fictitious actions frequently give rise to reflexions, as instructive as any which are made at the real actions themselves. By this means you may have good miners and sappers in abundance, who in time of sieges may ease the Engineers, and even supply the want of them upon occasion.

Of

Of Behaviour.

Notwithstanding the irregular behaviour and loose morals ordinarily found amongst military men, and which should seem no very favourable presage of what may be expected from them, when their Sovereign's glory, and their country's interest demands their service: Nevertheless wise and judicious men have maintain'd, that good morals are as indispensably necessary in men of their calling, as in those of the most exemplary profession; but supposing some freedoms of this kind to be overlook'd in the officers of the foot and horse, the case is not the same in regard to Engineers. The vast extensiveness of their profession, the many different kinds of knowledge required of them, and the constant study and application in which they ought necessarily to be engaged, if they would render themselves capable of their duty, require a calm mind wholly bent upon its business. We shall say nothing of obedience, subordination or fidelity, being qualities all absolutely essential to military men, to whatsoever corps they belong.

Of Punishment and Reward.

Punishment and reward, according to all politicians, are the two reins of government, of which whoever understands the management, may

may direct those under his authority just as he pleaseth; to this purpose, both are absolutely necessary. One without the other never doth well. In countries where offences against the publick interest are severely punish'd, every one endeavours of his own accord to render himself worthy of an employment before he solicits one.

If it is of consequence not to suffer offences to pass unpunish'd, it is no less so, that merit should not go without its reward. 'States', says Cardinal *Richlieu*, are never in a worse way, then when the Minister's affection for his particular favorites, prevails over their services who are more useful to the publick. When that is the case, neither our publick spirit, nor the hopes of reward, are any longer excitements to virtuous actions; on the contrary, we remain in a state of indifference betwixt good and evil, till either thro' envy, jealousy or vexation, all are born away from the pursuit of their duty, none expecting ever to find themselves the better for doing it. Whereas it is certain, that by well rewarding those who excel in useful and necessary arts, you are sure of having those arts carried to their utmost perfection; for men of the greatest talents and abilities never fail dedicating themselves to those professions, to which are annexed the greatest rewards. The author of *Telemachus* is of this

Political Will.

sentiment,

sentiment, 'That earnestness, says he, which you employ in search of men of ingenuity and virtue, to promote them; excites and encourages all who have either capacity or spirit; every one doth his utmost. How many, says he, of those, who languish at present in indolence and obscurity, might yet become great men, if emulation and hopes of success but awaken'd their industry.'

SECTION III.

Of the Regulation and Conduct to be observ'd in the Execution of Works of Fortification.

IF it were to be left to the Engineers themselves to prescribe such a rule of conduct as they thought proper to be observ'd in the execution of works of fortification, there would be as many different methods of carrying on the works, as there are fortresses in the State, to the great trouble, fatigue, and embarrassment of the treasurers, surveyors, comptroller, and even of the subaltern Engineers themselves, who are shifted from one place to another. Besides this licentiousness in the choice of a method, might give an opening to infinite abuse. It is therefore for the advantage of all persons employ'd in works of fortification, as well as for

the

the interest of the State, that one uniform rule of conduct be establish'd and observ'd in all places where works are carried on, for the instruction and guidance of those who are charg'd with them: Which regulation ought to contain these articles following;

1. To determine and fix the kind of measure to be used in laying down plans and maps, and likewise in the toising. To settle the scales of those plans and maps, and the manner of drawing them; without these precautions, things might be taken in a different sense from that in which they were intended, and create misunderstandings, wrong judgments, and false conclusions.

2. To make it a law, that no Engineer should settle the plan of the Fortification without first making an actual survey of the spot where it is to stand, and of the country round about it, within cannon-shot of the place, where all the particulars of the ground are to be taken notice of. Without such a survey one can never adjust properly the plan of the Fortification, take all advantages of the situation, correct the defects of it, and avoid all unnecessary expences; nor can the design itself be otherwise than very imperfectly traced. This rule ought not only to be observ'd with regard to new places, but likewise when the old are to be enlarg'd, or any part of them to be rebuilt.

Y

3. To

338 *The safety, &c. of States,*

3. To allow an Engineer sufficient time to settle his draughts, and to oblige him, 1. To make several of the same Fortreiss, and of each work in particular, for one design is never so excellent but another may be proposed very near as good, and the art of Fortification is not so barren, but it can furnish several means to arrive at the same end, to wit a long defence. 2. To examine and make remarks upon the several properties of each plan, their difference, and their different expences, that the Prince or his Minister may compare them, and determine upon which he thinks best and most suitable to the state of his affairs. The imposing such an obligation upon an Engineer cannot but be extremely for the interest of his Sovereign; the first thoughts are not always the best, 'tis the part of the imagination to bring forth a number of them, and that of the judgment to examine them, and to make the choice.

When Engineers are obliged to give one single design only of the works they propose, if that design unluckily happens not to be the best the subject is capable of, altho' you make it apparent by never so good reasons, they do not cease to defend it with ever the less heat and obstinacy, from a principle of self-conceit, the common frailty of mankind. Whereas when several different ones are required at the same time, the preference given to any one of them doth not hurt that vanity.

An Engineer who is desirous of serving his Prince as he ought, after settling his designs, will re-examine them with all the circumspection possible, and then correct them. To do this effectually, he must go upon the spot with the plan in his hand, there to examine such circumstances as the plan itself can but imperfectly represent; to see whether he has made use of all advantages in the situation, and supplied the defects of it, avoiding places that might be prejudicial to the defence, or opposing them with larger works, more substantial, and either more in number, or capable of greater resistance: And whether he has managed the expence with frugality, without failing in anything essential. This is not to be done without trouble, but the expence a Prince must necessarily be at to fortify a place, makes it highly reasonable that an Engineer should set apart so much time, to correct his own design, and compare it upon the spot, especially having generally sufficient leisure so to do. They who despising this maxim have assumed a merit to themselves, for having finish'd their designs in a very short time, have only made it manifest, tho' too late, that they have been mistaken. For there are few places but have something or other amiss, and to be rectified, were their works to be begun again.

4. To oblige an Engineer when order'd to lay out the design of a new Fortress, to calculate the lines and angles of his plan, profiles, &c. This is absolutely necessary, 1. In order to

340 *The safety, &c. of States,*

know exactly the solidity of the works to be rais'd, and the contents of the excavations, and whether the latter will be sufficient, or too great a quantity for the works which are to be rais'd.

2. To give the Prince as just an estimate as can be made of the expence of the Fortification. 3. To trace the plan of the Fortification upon the ground, with all the exactness that is possible; because when the design is but a small one, if you only take the extent of the lines upon a scale, and the value of the angles upon a semicircle, there will always be a mistake of some toises or degrees; and thus the work becomes not altogether conformable to the design. The only means of avoiding this fault is to compute by trigonometry the extent of all the lines and angles.

5. To oblige the Engineers to make as just an estimate as possible of the expences of the whole Fortification. This estimate must depend upon the quality of the materials intended to be used in the works, the places from whence they are to be fetch'd, the money they cost on the spot, the expence of their carriage, that of their fashioning, of setting or working them; dribling charges to forward that carriage, fashioning, &c. charge of making new ways, repairing of old ones, cutting canals for water-carriage, constructing necessary machines; all these expences must be taken in, to make a valuation of each piece of work at so much a toise.

It is of great consequence, that this estimate should be just. If overcharg'd, it might occasion the unseasonable rejecting of a plan on account of its expence only, which might otherwise be very advantageous to the Sovereign's affairs; and if the charge is under-rated, it may occasion the Prince's engaging in a work, whose expence exceeding his finances, it may perhaps on that account be impossible to finish, within the time when it is most wanted. Estimates are never allow'd either to exceed or fall short of the real expence above a sixth part at farthest, if they vary farther, 'tis either his fault, who projected the design, or his who had the execution of it; but when the same person has the charge of both, the difference ought to be still much less.

6. To oblige the Engineers, after settling their plan and making their estimate, to draw up an orderly and explanatory account of their design, by which the Sovereign, or Minister who has the charge of the Fortifications, may be enabled to form a judgment of what is proposed.

This scheme of the Engineers to be properly drawn up, if the place is a new one, should begin with setting forth clearly and evidently the importance of the new Fortress proposed, the advantages and disadvantages of the situation; then giving an account of the design itself, point out the good and bad properties of the works which compose it, with his own reasons for making them what they are.

* ' If the business is either to improve some
 ' place already fortified, or to make an addition
 ' to it of some considerable work, it ought fairly
 ' to represent the condition of it, setting forth its
 ' good or bad properties, and the necessity of
 ' remedying the latter, proposing afterwards
 ' what method he thinks proper for improving
 ' the good and amending the bad ones. The
 ' same thing should be done when the works of
 ' a place are either to be rebuilt or repair'd.

' After this he should describe the several parts
 ' of the construction, piece by piece, in intelli-
 ' gible terms, making use of cyphers or the
 ' letters of the alphabet, to mark the several re-
 ' ferences to the plans, profiles, and particular
 ' figures made in them, in order to facilitate
 ' the understanding of his proposition.

' Lastly, it is necessary he subjoin a short esti-
 ' mate of the charge of the several works he
 ' proposes, in which he is to come as near the
 ' truth as possible. From this he is to draw
 ' out another, setting forth in so many separate
 ' articles, the works proposed to be made
 ' each year, allotting the first entirely to the
 ' making preparations, if 'tis any thing of a
 ' great design; the second, to the constructing
 ' the works of greatest importance; the third,
 ' to those which are next in degree, and so of
 ' the rest, beginning always with those which
 ' may soonest put the place in a state of de-
 ' fence.

..* *M. Vauban.*

{ The

‘ The charge of each work is constantly to
‘ be set down at the end of that article, and the
‘ sum total of all those proposed to be done in
‘ the year at the bottom of that division.

‘ By this means the Minister, who has the
‘ charge of the Fortifications, will be enabled to
‘ form a perfect idea of the design, and with
‘ much greater ease to himself, fall into the
‘ necessary measures for putting it in execution.

‘ After this, if he has any thing particular
‘ to recommend in the Fortifications he pro-
‘ poses, he should describe its properties in a
‘ short note at the end of his estimate, which
‘ is to have a reference to the plan for better
‘ explanation. It will be extremely proper to
‘ be as particular as possible, and to enlarge as
‘ much upon each article, as this will explain
‘ the uses they are capable of in a siege, and
‘ perhaps manifest such properties to those who
‘ are to have the defence of them, as they
‘ might otherwise never have discover’d.

‘ When he has finish’d his project, and with
‘ it the explanatory notes according to order,
‘ he must send them with the plan and memo-
‘ randums to the Minister or Secretary of State,
‘ who has the department of Fortification in
‘ order for his Majesty’s approbation.

‘ It ought to be a constant rule, never to
‘ enter into any expence, nor to begin any
‘ work proposed by a Director, till the Mini-
‘ ster’s answer has been receiv’d in regard to
‘ the approbation or alteration of the design.

7. That no project be ever order'd to be put in execution, till it has first been examin'd with all the care and attention that is possible, by a consultation of able Engineers, where the author is to be present, and likewise the person who is to put it in execution. The affair is of too great importance to be left entirely to the decision of a single person, and many heads, says the proverb, are better than one. Such an assembly would scarce break up without warm debates; but those kind of disputes generally give rise to such explanations as are extremely for the benefit of the service, and which cannot fail instructing both the persons who proposed, and them who are to execute the design.

8. After the project and draughts have been examin'd, to settle the list of such works as shall be judg'd proper to be finish'd within the compass of each year, and especially of the first.

9. To oblige the Director, who projected the design, to make out a *Devis*, that is to say, an explanation of the particular parts, the measures to be taken, and conduct to be observ'd in the execution of them.

* This *Devis*, or Explanation, must be simple, clear, neat, and distinct, express'd in the proper terms of art, and in the dialect of the country, that the workmen may all perfectly understand it. It must contain no

* *M. Vauban.*

equivocal

‘equivocal expression, or such as is capable of
 ‘two interpretations; and for this purpose,
 ‘before the work is begun, the Engineer should
 ‘be perfectly well acquainted with the nature
 ‘of the soil intended to be built on, the quality
 ‘of the materials to be used; and always have
 ‘a plan of the work, a draught of the elevation,
 ‘and as many profiles as there are different levels
 ‘of the ground, all of them accurately drawn,
 ‘with the strictest regard to measurement;
 ‘the changeable appearances of the ground na-
 ‘turally represented, and a scale at the bottom
 ‘exactly divided; as those draughts or figures
 ‘annexed to the *Devis*, will better explain what
 ‘they represent than the best written discourse
 ‘in the world.

‘These plans, drawings, and profiles are to be
 ‘annex’d to the *Devis*, which is to have its re-
 ‘ferences mark’d with cyphers and letters of the
 ‘alphabet, to make the thing more intelligible.

10. Always to set the works out to un-
 dertakers when it is possible to be done. ‘Works
 ‘of Fortification, says M. *Vauban*, are usually
 ‘done either by general or particular contract
 ‘or piece-work, or by a * duty imposed on
 ‘the country call’d *Corvée*, and sometimes
 ‘after a mixt manner consisting of all these
 ‘ways.

‘When contractors are to be met with upon
 ‘reasonable terms, men of substance and of

* *Ouvrage a Corvée*; a work imposed on the Peasants,
 for which they are not paid.

346 *The safety, &c. of States,*

‘ capacity to engage for the whole, it will be
 ‘ best to treat with such, explaining clearly all
 ‘ the particulars in the Devis of the several
 ‘ pieces contain’d in it; but it is a very rare
 ‘ thing to meet with heads strong enough to
 ‘ bear so heavy a burthen as a general under-
 ‘ taking of this kind, the hurry in which the
 ‘ works are generally push’d on, occasions at
 ‘ long run numberless contraventions of the arti-
 ‘ cles, till the affair at last becomes so embroil’d,
 ‘ and the undertaker so often confounded as not
 ‘ to know whereabouts he is.’ Tis best limiting
 ‘ the agreement to some particular works, and
 ‘ such as may be accomplish’d in a little time;
 ‘ but whatever way you proceed, every thing
 ‘ that is done should be measured within the
 ‘ year, and the account made up with the con-
 ‘ tractors.

‘ All finall piece-work, and working by the
 ‘ day, should likewise be avoided, as intro-
 ‘ ducing only tricks and confusion; besides in
 ‘ that case the workman knowing the utmost he
 ‘ can earn, is never in a hurry to make an end,
 ‘ whereas he who is paid as he goes on, wants
 ‘ no overseer to push him forwards but his
 ‘ own interest.

‘ *Corvée*, or peasant-work should never be
 ‘ imposed where the works are such as require
 ‘ either neatness or expedition; for skill and
 ‘ diligence are not to be expected from people
 ‘ who never work but when they are forc’d to
 ‘ it, and then only want to get the time off
 ‘ their

‘ their hands ; but when one is obliged to make
‘ use of them for the removing of ground, such
‘ a quantity should be enjoined them as a task,
‘ distributing it amongst them by companies,
‘ having an eye to their treatment of one an-
‘ other, or to any agreement they shall come
‘ to with the undertakers to make an end of
‘ the business ; which ever way they do, to
‘ take cognisance of it, and charitably to take
‘ care that those with whom they treat neither
‘ over-reach them in their price or measure,
‘ nor sell their labour too dear.

‘ To act rightly, this peasant-work should
‘ never be exacted unless for carriage of ma-
‘ terials, or for making works of a very coarse
‘ kind, and always as sparingly as possible, in
‘ regard to the ruin it brings upon the country.

II. To settle the forms to be observ’d
in the Award and Contract, and the first
rule in regard to both when it is for a new
place, and the works considerable, is, that
they be done in the presence of the Minister of
the Fortifications ; or before the Surveyor or
his Substitute, when the business is only the
improving, rebuilding, repairing, or keeping
up of an old one ; the second is, that the In-
gineer who drew the plan, he who is to be
charg’d with the execution of it, and the Town-
Major of the place be likewise present. This is
the judgment of M. *Vauban*. Nothing should be
‘ concluded in regard to the contract, whether
‘ the work is put up to abatement, according
‘ to

348 *The safety, &c. of States,*

to the usual method, or disposed of any other way, without the Governor, King's Lieutenant, and Majors of the Place being call'd, and signing the act as done in their presence; the Mayors and Sheriffs should be there likewise, to make the whole authentick. The third rule is, that the contract be always awarded to the last and lowest bidder, provided the person be a man of capacity, and of responsible circumstances.' M. *Vauban* makes a very important remark upon this subject: 'When the business, says he, is to receive proposals from undertakers concerning any considerable works, 'tis best doing it in form, but not always letting them to those who are willing to undertake them upon the lowest terms; it will be necessary to examine not only whether they are men of substance, to be responsible for the monies impress'd into their hands, but whether they are capable of performing what they are so ready to undertake; and then, if it shall be thought proper to close with them, to do it upon reasonable terms, without beating down the price too low; because if it be any thing of a large concern, and offer'd to poor ignorant people, they will be ready to undertake it upon any terms, in hopes of getting a penny out of it some way or other, or at the worst, subsisting at the expence of the undertaking: But, instead of depending upon such, when it comes to the execution, all you have to expect
from

from them is, that they will endeavour to
make the most of their bargain, and put all
the works in confusion; after which, their
heads turning, they either sink under the bur-
then, or run away if not prevented, which
they will infallibly be obliged to do at last,
but which never happens without occasion-
ing a great augmentation of the expence,
intolerable delays, vast confusion, and a
general discredit thrown upon the works;
the consequence of which is, those which
might have been made for 30 sols the toise,
generally cost 40 or 50; those which should
have been finish'd in one year are not finish'd
in two; and the disorder they are thrown
into gives infinite trouble to those who have
the conduct of them, till at last the workmen
desert for want of being paid, and give the
works so bad a name that none will offer to be
employ'd in them. From all which we may
be assured, that nothing is so pernicious as
those pretended good bargains, which should
be regarded in no other light than as the ef-
fectual means of drawing out the work to
an endless length, without any prospect of
ever seeing it finish'd. The intention of all
this, is only to set those people to rights,
all whose concern is to endeavour to bear down
the price of the works as low as possible, in
order to get a cheap bargain, without consider-
ing the consequences, or whether it be possi-
ble,

ble for the contractors to perform their agreement.

The fourth point of form to be observ'd in regard to the Contract, is, that the Surveyor and Contractor whom he judges capable of the works, and who has undertaken them at the lowest price, enter into a covenant before a Notary; that this covenant begin with explaining all the articles of the Devis, or rather be a copy of the Devis itself; that therein be specified the time in which the works are to be finish'd; how long the undertaker is to warrant them, and that he give security for that purpose; the Prince to oblige himself to advance the funds, in proportion as the works are advanc'd, and to procure all necessary means to facilitate the execution. *Secondly*, As soon as the Contract is made, the Director-Engineer, and Surveyor, is to send to the Minister who has the charge of the Fortifications, a copy of the Devis and Contract, with a Schedule, in which the prices of each piece of work, and the names of the undertakers are set down in the margin overagainst them, that he may see at once what the expence of the whole amounts to, and take his measures accordingly for the remittance of the funds: This likewise will be a means to prevent all opportunities of making alterations in the prices already settled, whether intended in favour of the undertaker, or to oblige him to give up his bargain.

12. To oblige the Engineer-director, who made the Project, to trace the works himself; as no one can or ought to do it with greater exactness than the Author, who therefore should have the whole glory or discredit of it; when it is turn'd over to another, and some fault is found in it at last, the Author lays it to the charge of him who traced it, and the tracer lays it to the author; besides, some difficulty or other may arise, such perhaps as it was not possible to foresee, and nobody fitter to find a remedy for it than he who projected the design. The Director should likewise be obliged to give the Engineers who have the charge of carrying on the works, the plans, elevations and profiles, mark'd with their references, and sign'd, and memorandums of all particularities and precautions to be observ'd, that if any thing should be found amiss, the fault may be imputed to the right person.

13. Not to begin upon any work till the magazine of materials is first prepared, both of such things as may be necessary to expedite the works, and to finish them in as compleat a manner as is possible.

‘ Nothing, says M. *Vauban*, is so necessary in
‘ works of Fortification as diligence, and nothing
‘ more repugnant to that, than the great precipitation with which they are generally begun,
‘ without having made the necessary provision
‘ of materials before-hand, or being assured of as
‘ many workmen as you may have occasion to
employ;

' employ ; from this hurry at setting out it fre-
 ' quently comes to pass, that before the works
 ' are half made, I don't know how many things
 ' are wanting, which never fails to occasion a
 ' dangerous delay, a considerable encrease of
 ' expence by the extraordinary assistance you
 ' are obliged to get elsewhere, and for which
 ' you sometimes pay very dear, to say nothing
 ' of the great damage the country suffers by the
 ' imposition of peasant-work and carriage, when
 ' the Peasants perhaps are in the midst of their
 ' harvest ; for which reason I repeat it once
 ' again, that a work should never be begun
 ' without effectual measures being first taken
 ' for a supply of materials, and so large
 ' a magazine prepared, that the number of
 ' workmen intended to be employ'd there may
 ' never want ; and this should be the more ex-
 ' actly observ'd, as nothing is so hazardous for
 ' a Place as delay in the works, because till
 ' they have acquired their utmost perfection
 ' the Place is in continual danger, being consi-
 ' derably weaken'd by the natural imperfect
 ' state of the works, by the heaps of materials
 ' spread all about, by the great gaps left in
 ' the cover'd ways for the carriages to pass, by
 ' the filling up of the ditches, all accidents in-
 ' separable from unfinish'd works ; from whence
 ' it follows, that till a work has acquired its
 ' utmost perfection, it is always against the
 ' Place, that is to say, rather hurtful than any
 ' way conducing to its defence. Unhappy
 ' situa-

‘situation, and to be dreaded by all who
‘have the charge of works in a linger-
‘ing way, such I mean as flag for want
‘of proper measures taken before-hand to for-
‘ward them as they ought, and more especially
‘in time of war, when the enemy may form an
‘enterprize against them every moment. There
‘is nothing more common in the history of
‘past or even present wars, than instances of
‘places which have been either taken by sur-
‘prize, or abandon’d by constraint, before their
‘Fortifications were put in a condition of de-
‘fence.’

This vast collection of materials consists of
stone, lime, sand, wood, &c. means likewise must
be contrived for getting water, with as little
expence as possible, if it is to be fetch’d from
far; and if there should be a necessity for driv-
ing piles, and for draining the water from the
foundations, the proper machines must be pro-
vided for those purposes. Tho’ our intent is to
be as brief as possible, and not to enter into
particulars in this chapter, we shall however
mention two precautions to be observed in regard
to stones and sand. They are taken notice of in
Vitruvius; ‘When one is obliged to make use
‘of soft stones, such as are apt to molder, they
‘should be taken out of the quarry in summer-
‘time, never in winter, and exposed to the air
‘in some open place two years before they are
‘used; those which have receiv’d any damage

* *Lib. II. Chap. vii.*

354 *The safety, &c. of States,*

* from the hard weather to be thrown into the
 * foundations, those which have stood that
 * natural test, and proved good, to be us'd in the
 * mason work above-ground. This method
 * should be observ'd with regard to the raggs-
 * stone as well as free stone. On the other
 * hand, sand should never be taken out of the
 * pit but only as 'tis wanted, because when it is
 * kept a long time, the sun and the moon change
 * it, the rain even dissolves it, and turns it al-
 * most all into earth, by which means it becomes
 * quite useless for binding stones, or building stout
 * walls capable of sustaining any great weight;
 * however that sand newly taken out of the
 * pit, is not so good for facings as it is for inside
 * mason work, being of a clayey nature, and
 * growing dry so fast, that when it is mixt
 * up with lime and straw, the mortar made
 * of it is very apt to crack; for which rea-
 * son the river-sand, which is less clayey, is better
 * for facings, provided it is well mixt up.

These and all the rest of the materials must
 be stow'd as near as possible to the places where
 they are to be used, in such a manner however
 as not to stop the passing of the carriages, or
 incommode either the works or workmen.

14. Before any work is begun, to make a
 valuation of the houses belonging to parti-
 cular persons, on whose ground the Fortifi-
 cation is to stand, and even to pay them
 their money before-hand if it be possible; it
 being but reasonable that the owner, whose
 property you take away without asking his con-
 sent,

sent, and generally for a very mean consideration, should not fall short of his yearly income by waiting too long for his principal.

15. 'To regulate and dispose of employments according to the immediate demand of the works, and the capacity of each workman, to the end that none be employ'd but such as are useful and necessary, nor any charged with the care of what they dont understand, or with more than they can perform. Mismanagement in this point being the usual origin and source of all the disorders that arise in the conducting works of Fortification.

16. Never to make any change in the persons who have been once charg'd with the execution of the work, before it is entirely finish'd: According to Mr. *Vauban*, who insists upon it, 'that nothing is more destructive of all oeconomy, and opposite to the advancement of works, than the frequent changing those persons who have the principal care of them, particularly the Engineers; as from this shifting of hands it comes to pass, that no one is thoroughly instructed in his business; that the person employ'd is always a novice in it, and never thoroughly acquainted with the quality or value of the materials, or the capacity of the workmen; that they neither know the best means for conveyance of those materials, nor what method to take to establish good order in that particular; things however necessary to be known, but only to be learnt by time and experience. I will venture further to

' say what is but too certain, that let them take
 ' never so much pains to make themselves masters
 ' of their profession, the Sovereign, at whose ex-
 ' pence they are taught, always pays dearly for
 ' their apprenticeship; for if it is undoubtedly true,
 ' that in the beginnings of all great works what-
 ' ever, it is impossible even for the most skillful
 ' in the profession, with all the application they
 ' are masters of, to prevent the expence exceeding
 ' what it ought to be, by a fifth or a sixth part,
 ' how must it fare with the works of those
 ' places who have every year a new Director,
 ' and where none have time sufficient to learn the
 ' duties of their station? Such a conduct can
 ' produce no other fruits but designs ill-exe-
 ' cuted, and a monstrous aggravation of ex-
 ' pence; for which there is no other remedy,
 ' but to make good choice once for all of the
 ' several persons intended to be employ'd; to
 ' have patience with them till they are tho-
 ' roughly acquainted with their business, and
 ' then to continue them in their employments
 ' as long as there is any occasion for them, or
 ' they behave as they ought.

17. ' By no means to suffer those who have
 ' any charges in the works to introduce their
 ' domesticks to be employ'd in them under any
 ' pretence whatsoever, any more than their
 ' horses or their valets; because such a proceed-
 ' ing would give great cause of suspicion, as it
 ' might introduce such compliances in favour of
 ' the undertaker as are not fairly to be explain'd:
 ' They even ought not to be allow'd to employ
 ' their

‘their relations, or any persons however recommended, without the Minister’s consent.’

18. To regulate the manner of adjusting the estimate every year, which ought to be done as follows :

1. The Surveyors every year should deliver copies to the chief Engineers of the place, with the pages figur’d from first to last, indented, examin’d, and sign’d by the former.

2. The several articles therein, to be set down according to the order prescribed by the articles of State, that it may be seen at once whether the funds exceed the expence, or the expence the funds.

3. That in the measurement, whether particular or general, the spot of ground, and part of the works, the name of the work itself, and of the undertaker, be specified, and these mark’d in the plans with a cypher and reference, so as to be found with ease, if there should be occasion to verify them : That the dimensions be given, and the product of them, the parts distinguished, when there are several in one piece ; and the computation always made in toises, feet, and inches, that way of computing being the clearest, the most in use, and least subject to the intricacies of fractions.

4. That the measurement be perform’d by a subaltern Engineer in presence of the chief Engineer, or by the chief Engineer if there be no subaltern.

5. 'That the undertakers be not suffered to begin upon any work whatsoever, till they have first had the figure given them, and its exact dimensions, its several heights and depths mark'd, an estimate made of the whole, and a sign'd copy given them of the contents; as soon as the works are finish'd they are to be measured the second time, and if the last measurement differs from the first, the lowest computation shall be taken for the King's account; this is to be understood of earth-works only, or removals of ground, for as to the masonry in the foundation, such alterations may be necessary as that it may be impracticable to make it tally with the first measurement, without running willfully into error. When that kind of work is begun, as fast as it is carried up, exact memorandums are to be taken and sign'd by the Engineer, the Contractor, and principal Officers of the work, in which the breadth, length, and elevation of every particular part are to be distinctly and clearly set forth, and the spot exactly described to avoid all kind of perplexity or fraud in the general toise account. The part referred to is likewise to be represented in the margin as often as it shall be thought necessary for farther explanation.'

As to the carpenters work, an account must be taken of all the timber made use of, and likewise of all that is not.

An account must be kept of the weight of all the iron and lead works.

6. All

6. All earth-works to be measured by the excavations of the ditches from whence the earth is taken, and by the cubical toise, not by the measure of the country.

The mason-work to be measured by the cubical toise if walls of a great thickness, or by the toise-square if only single walls, as caserns, store-magazines, Corps de Gardes, and such like.

The timber-work to be measured by the
* *Solive*.

All the iron-works to be weigh'd by the pound.

19. To oblige the chief Engineer, to give every month to the Minister and Surveyor, an account of the state of the works of the Place, and to the Director as often as he shall want to have any part of the design explain'd, or to have his opinion of any part of the works.

In that memorial first are to be enter'd the works order'd to be made. 2. In the margin is to be set down the state in which they are at present, and what sums have been laid out. 3. At the end a recapitulation, in which is to be express'd the total of the monies receiv'd, and what has been expended, and of the cash remaining in hand, or the excess of the expence beyond the fund. 4. Is to be set forth what money has been paid the contractors on account of the expence, what remains due to them, or what they are over-paid. To this, if necessary, shall be annex'd another account of the mate-

* *A particular French measurement, being a parallelepipedon, 3 feet high, whose base is a foot square.*

360 *The safety, &c. of States,*

rials in store, and the value of them, in which is to be a list of the workmen and labourers employ'd in the works, of the soldiers and others, with a recapitulation and total at the end. To this must be added an account of the train or equipage; that is to say, the number of carriages, horses, or other cattle, &c. and a total at the end.

20. To regulate the manner of settling the account at the end of each year, which form must be nearly the same with that above-mention'd.

21. To settle the forms to be observ'd when any work is to be receiv'd as finish'd. This ceremony is to be perform'd in the presence of the Governors, the King's Lieutenants, Majors, Mayors, Sheriffs, that the whole act may be authentick, as *M. Vauban* advises.

22. To make a law, that ' whenever it shall
' be thought proper to open any part of the
' rampart, to let the water out of the ditch, to
' overflow any part of the environs, or lastly,
' to level any of the out-works, in order to make
' new ones there, nothing of this kind be done
' till the permission of the Governor, or of him
' who commands in his absence, is first obtain'd.
' It being but reasonable this deference should
' be paid to those persons whose honours and
' lives are responsible for the safe keeping of
' the Place.'

23. To make it a rule likewise, when any improvements are intended in the works of a place, always to begin with the cover'd way
of

of the part that is defective, and then to proceed to the works most advanc'd, that it may not be in the power of an enemy to surprize the place whilst it lies open, or to interrupt the works. And for the same reasons not to demolish all the old works at once, but one after another, and that not till all the necessary materials are collected in order to the rebuilding of them.

C H A P. IX.

Of the necessity of keeping Fortresses constantly provided with all things necessary for their defence.

FORTRESSES, says *M. Vauban*, are only ditches and ramparts, dispos'd in such a manner that the several parts of them see and defend each other; which parts themselves being only so many heaps of dead matter, have no virtue but what consists in their numbers, disposition, and substance, nor active power but what is communicated to them by those employ'd in their defence, to render them effective. As a place therefore, tho' never so strong in itself, cannot possibly exert or put in act that strength without human assistance, these men to be capable either of acting or subsisting will want arms and ammunition for their defence, and bread for their support. It is not therefore sufficient for the defence and safety of a State to have

have Fortresses, but those again must be provided with all things necessary for that purpose. Without this precaution they will rather be disadvantageous than useful: The enemy may get possession of them with ease, and turn them against the Sovereign who built them.

It is not for a State to think itself absolutely secure, either because she is herself at peace with all her neighbours, or because they are so likewise amongst themselves. How many Princes, depending entirely upon the faith of a treaty, have at last found themselves deceiv'd: And how many towns been attack'd without any previous declaration of war? The enemy may have long since made their preparations, or may at any time make them so secretly or so suddenly, or colour them with pretences, having so much the appearance of truth, as the artifice may not be perceiv'd till 'tis too late. Politicians less wise and wary than the *Venetians*, would have been entirely lull'd asleep by the *Turks* protestations, when they laid their design of attacking *Venice* in the year 1646.

Besides, the ammunition and victualling stores necessary for a number of Places, amount to so considerable an expence, that a Prince, if he has not a great deal of money before-hand, may happen to find himself not in a condition of supplying them at a time, when some of them perhaps may be on the very brink of an attack. This accident befell the States of *Holland* in the year 1672; a great many of their towns surrender'd, because they were themselves unable,
both

both time and funds falling short, to supply them with every thing necessary to make a good defence.

The safest way therefore is constantly in every Place to keep the principal things necessary for its defence. However there are some particulars to be consider'd on this head, and some distinctions to be made, as we shall presently show.

For the guard and defence of a Place, as we have said before, men, arms, and provisions, will be required.

The number of men should be greater or less, as the Place is in more or less danger of being attack'd.

Of arms there should always be kept the full number necessary for its defence; as the keeping them in repair is a very inconsiderable expence. Under the name of arms are comprehended not only small arms, but cannon, ammunition, and whatever belongs to the train of artillery. Note, that in regard to powder 'tis better having a provision of the ingredients of which it is compos'd, then the same quantity of powder ready made, because by long keeping it losseth its strength, and grows good for nothing.

As to Provision, every Place ought at least to be provided for as long a time as it would be able to hold out against any attack of open force, or even of famine; and should have such good orders made for its preservation, that it may not be in the liberty even of the Governor, to whom the disposal of it properly belongs, either to
waste

waste or embezzle it. Such a conduct cannot but be advantageous even tho' a Prince were certain his towns would not be attack'd; for the harvest happening to fail in some part or other of the country, those magazines would be a great benefit to the ordinary people. To preserve those victualling stores always in a good condition fit for use, such of them as would keep no longer must be disposed of every year, and fresh laid in. All that can be objected against making these provisions is the difficulty of preventing tricks in the persons entrusted with the management of them, but good laws, strictly executed, will be a means of preventing all frauds of that kind.

The circumstances necessary to be consider'd in regard to furnishing Places with stores, are, the manner in which they are liable to be attack'd, whether by surprize, force, or famine; the Sovereign's power to whom they belong, their own magnitude, their importance to the State, and the advantages or disadvantages of their situation.

In a Place liable to be surprized, there should never be kept a great quantity of ammunition or provision, unless it be upon the brink of being besieged, and the garrison so strong as to be in no danger from attacks of that kind; but if a necessity should happen of making magazines there, not for the defence of the place itself, but with some other view, the garrison must be made very strong, and double care and caution used for their preservation.

In

In Places out of danger of a surprize, but liable to be attack'd by force, there should be no greater quantity of ammunition or provision kept, than just sufficient to maintain them as long as they may be suppos'd to be capable of sustaining those kinds of attacks.

And in Places which are to be taken by famine only, there should always be a quantity of provision sufficient to maintain them for as long or even a longer time than the besiegers army can possibly lie before the Place.

Places, in general, belonging to Princes of slender power, such as are not in a condition either of forcing an enemy to raise the siege, or of throwing in succours themselves, ought constantly to be provided with whatever they may want to enable them to sustain a siege.

Great towns are very apt to fall short of provisions, for which reason a more than ordinary care should be taken to keep them well supplied; when there is reason to apprehend their being besieged, all the forage and provisions of the neighbouring country should be drawn into the Place, or whatever cannot be got in, upon the near approach of the enemy, should be burnt or destroy'd, that the enemy may not reap the benefit of them.

Places which are of general importance to a State, such as command the entrance of the Kingdom, ought not only to be kept constantly provided with every thing necessary to a good defence, but should likewise have a strong gar-
rison,

rison, and as watchful an eye as possible kept over them for their preservation.

In Places of less importance, and in Fortresses of the second line, there need only the usual numbers to guard and garrison them, and a few stores; deferring, till they are threaten'd with a siege, the sending such a quantity thither as may be necessary for their defence under those circumstances.

If a Place is difficult of attack by force, it ought to be furnish'd with such a garrison, and such a quantity of ammunition and provisions as may be sufficient to frustrate all such attempts in an enemy.

If a Place is very weak, it will need only such a garrison, and quantity of provisions, as may be sufficient to serve them during the short time they are able to sustain a siege, and a few days over. Too strong a garrison would occasion too great a consumption of provisions, and too great a quantity of ammunition, might serve the besiegers, for some other expedition they might have in view; or if they had no such intention before, might put it into their heads. This however is contrary to the maxims of the *Turks*: They never trouble themselves about making a great many works in their Fortifications, nor even about any advantages of situation; they depend wholly upon their numbers for their defence, and upon their quantity of ammunition and artillery, with which their frontier places are always well stored; but experience has taught us, that either

a happy

A happy situation, or a few good works, will supply the defect of numbers in a garrison; besides, that maxim of the *Turks*, is only practicable for Princes of very great power, and whose dominions are very populous.

When a Place is capable of receiving succours of all kinds with ease, how important forever it may be to the State, and how easily forever attack'd, there is no necessity fully to provide it with necessaries of all kinds for its defence; of this kind are some towns situate on great rivers, and all such as stand upon the sea coast with good harbours to them, because as the whole coast can neither be attack'd nor shut up, the Sovereign will always have it in his power to send them fresh supplies.

If the neighbouring country furnishes enough and more than enough of necessaries of all kinds for the subsistence of the garrison and inhabitants, there is no occasion to have a store in reserve; 'tis sufficient that the Governor be always attentive to the enemy's motions, taking such measures, as to have time enough to receive into the Place all, or the greatest part of the country provisions, and to destroy what cannot be brought in.

In Places, where the neighbouring country is barren, and which are not easily to be succour'd on account of their situation, and the badness of the ways for carriage, the best maxim, is constantly to keep upon the spot almost every thing necessary for their defence, the full numbers of the garrison excepted; men being

being that kind of supply, the easiest thrown into a Place.

In Towns which have Citadels, 'tis safer keeping the stores in the Citadels than in the Towns; because if the latter should be surpris'd or carried by force, there may not be sufficient time for removing them into the former. * In the year 1600 the Town of *Bourg* having been taken by Petard, the assailants found themselves masters of the victualling stores which had been laid up there, and immediately afterwards investing the Citadel, the garrison, for want of provision, was obliged to capitulate much sooner than they would otherwise have done.

When once a Place is stored, nothing ought to be taken from thence in expectation of an opportunity of replacing it, more especially in time of war. The year 1595, the Town and Citadel of *Cambray* were obliged to surrender through a misconduct of this kind. The *Spaniards* being apprised of the avaritious humour of the Dame *Balagny*, as the corn had been something dear in *June* and *July*, found means to draw it all out of her granaries, by purchasing it at her own price. The Town was invested before the return of harvest gave an opportunity for a fresh supply; at length the Dame perceiv'd that with her corn she had sold her Sovereignty.

* *Mezeray.*



F I N I S.

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...

...the ... of ...